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THE NEW ERA

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

IN the Outlook Tower we try to keep the mountain-top point of view, to overlook the dark valleys of prejudice, class hatred, war, jealousy and ignorance, to try to hold the vision of the ultimate values in education. It is no easy task. Conflicting schools of philosophical and psychological thought, confusion and complexity of aim and method, variety of experiment, diversity of economic conditions, traditions and class distinctions, throng into and jostle the mind, and dull the sense of proportion. The very effort to retain the vision is likely to be misunderstood by those who are ardent adherents of a national system and by those who are supporters of any one method or school of thought, or who see education from the angle of class prejudice.

Evolution of New Education Fellowship
From this Outlook Tower in 1921 we watched the drawing together of leaders of pioneer education, and the taking shape of the present form of the New Education Fellowship. Between that date and now the world has been evolving very rapidly, and with it, the Fellowship. While from the first the Fellowship concentrated on discovering what pioneers were attempting in different countries, it has never been doctrinal or held to any special creed, nor has it even tried to stabilize a special form. Its policy has been to adapt itself to the needs of the time, to create fresh forms as they were required to express a brooding spirit or fresh urge.

The new education envisaged ten years ago is no longer new ; it has become a body of principles generally accepted by liberal educators everywhere. Outstanding radical experiments still exist, and these have their place and function, but to-day the Fellowship is more concerned

with fundamental changes in educational systems and with the necessity for readjusting these systems to the new conditions of modern life. This machine age in which we are now living has upset the old balance of work and leisure, demand and supply, wages and expenditure. Aerial transport, wireless and telephony, have contracted the physical world to the dimensions of an old-time suburb ; research in realms of science and metaphysics has given us glimpses of vast new territories in the human mind, in the plant, in the air, in the atom.

New Education and Internationalism

The tendency in all the main departments of life is towards world conceptions. No nation can longer exist as an isolated unit. Financiers must think in terms of world finance, economists in terms of world economics and world markets ; medicine, science, art, music, belong to mankind as a whole. Education is the only field of creative activity that is still regarded as merely a national concern.

Lord Eustace Percy in his *Education at the Crossroads* says : ' Educational reformers have too often contented themselves in the past with what is really a servile view of education, making our schools the slaves of existing social standards instead of the creators of new '. Such a sentence is ' pregnant with vast consequence '. Undoubtedly education is the most potent force in the promotion of social evolution. Within it lie possibilities of safety or of danger—hope or fear, the greatest achievements of civilization or destruction. The danger has already shown itself in countries where educational systems have been created with the express purpose of inflating nationalism. And it is showing itself again to-day in the form of violent propaganda. Not alone can the outlook of a nation be

changed in a generation by education, but its whole nature, apparently, be transformed.

The only possible safeguard against the danger of war, conflicts and suspicions of all kinds, is the realization that it is a crime for adults to use education as a means of fostering their own particular creeds and beliefs. Education is growth, and we have no right to tamper with the natural development of life, or to divert its direction in order to play off our own twisted policies and politics. It is time that we saw clearly the focal points of child development, and the continual research into the manifestations of childhood that is being undertaken to-day, is helping us to see them more clearly. It should not be impossible for experts to determine the norm of average physical, mental and emotional growth that could be achieved at this stage of human evolution, so that the same average of development could be aimed at in every country. This would not mean standardization, in which again lurks danger, but a deep faith in human nature.

If the same conditions of environment and the same stimuli, allowing for national differences in social background, were provided for children everywhere, it should be possible to have a type of citizen who would be socially adjusted not only to his own group but also to the larger world group. Such a citizen would arbitrate, compromise and co-operate, and would take care that the government of his country did likewise.

From this point of view, it is becoming increasingly urgent to discover by co-operative enterprise of an international character, the objectives of modern education, and to evaluate the various methods and systems which should best compass those objectives. In this evaluation one finds that the new methods of education, laboratory schools, radical experiments, and child psychology and research, are all helping to bring about a new attitude, and to direct our attention from school subject matter to the child himself.

Balance Necessary Between Old and New
We have now reached the stage when it is necessary to make a careful survey in order to determine how far we have progressed, what our basic principles and aims are, and how the

maximum adjustment to world needs may be made in the minimum of time. In this critical survey we must be bold enough to reject both the old and the new when they are of no intrinsic value: we must also be wise enough to retain the old and to incorporate the new when they have proved they are both serving the needs of child development. While accepting in principle the value of individual development, it is essential to strike a balance between individual work and collective work, between creative work and the mastery of technique, between differentiation and standardization, between self-discipline and control by authority, between nationalism and internationalism.

Professor Clarke, in his article on page 5 of this issue, shows very clearly the need for less hasty judgment, for more friendly understanding and for more goodwill between educators in Britain and the Dominions. There is a real desire on the part of the Dominions to know what we are doing in Britain in the realm of education, to know what we are aiming at, and reciprocally, we must know of their problems and their aims and their methods of working, and gain understanding of their conditions and different environments.

We in Great Britain should realize that in many ways the Dominions have been able to go farther in education than we have. Our life tradition has been slowly growing and changing through centuries—they are creating their tradition now, diverging from the British tradition in a way that is individual to each.

There is a real need for an institution in London similar to Teachers College, Columbia University, that is, a college where teachers from the Dominions may come to study methods of education not alone of Britain but also of the other Dominions. It would constitute a vanguard of education in the Commonwealth because it would synthesize the best in all aspects of education.

British Commonwealth Conference

The New Education Fellowship is organizing a British Commonwealth Conference to be held in London in July 1931, under the Presidency of Professor Sir Percy Nunn. Full particulars of the Conference will be available in the New Year, and obtainable from 11 Tavistock Square, W.C.1.

The 'New Era' in 1931

The *New Era* is a co-operative enterprise. Though it is recognized by the International Council of the New Education Fellowship as its medium for English-speaking countries, it is not the organ of any one set of opinions. It aims at making known what is happening in education the world over. Its centre of gravity is the child, and the child considered as a whole being—in the home, in school, in the world.

Even in these more enlightened days teachers are inclined to think of a child within the four walls of a classroom, and to forget that his environment is equally made up of his home and of society, that it is conditioned by the past and is being changed as past merges into present and present into future. The problems of the here-now moment must be seen in relation to the problems which concern the child's whole future development. If we again take the mountain-top view we cannot recognize social distinction as between children, and in the series of articles planned for this year we are deliberately refraining from employing terms which connote class distinctions, particularly in Britain. We

are planning articles of interest to the parent and teacher of the pre-school child, of the child between six and twelve years of age, and of the child between twelve and sixteen. We hope to arrange a few special issues (beginning with one on Dramatic Work in March) and to introduce articles of a controversial nature.

We should like to thank the many people who have supported the new monthly publication—those who have encouraged us with praise and helped us with criticism, those who have written articles and reviewed books, and those who have helped to extend the circulation. We want and need the co-operation of a still greater number of well-wishers, for the magazine will not be able to continue in its present form and to achieve what is required of it unless its supporters take an active part in extending its circulation, in sending us material, and in telling us frankly what they like, what is of use to them, and what improvements they would suggest.

Of all really interested in the *New Era*, therefore, we ask that it shall be one of their New Year resolutions to become its active co-operators and not only its passive sympathisers!



Boy (age 7) at Home-made Easel [Recreation Rooms
Play School, New York City]

Art work is no longer merely a subject on a time-table. It is an intrinsic part of all other school work and a medium for creative self-expression. The tendency is for the work to be bolder. Children no longer sit at desks bent over drawing-boards; they stand at large easels, and work with large pots of cheap paint. The easels can be made in the craft shop, are inexpensive, and two children can work at one easel and its trough for paints.



Wall Frieze by Group aged 9-12

[*Family Centre Play School, Public School No. 41, New York City*]

This kind of freedom leads to keen mental concentration, activity and co-operation. This group is painting Washington Square Park, near which the school is located, on sheets of brown paper with which they covered the walls. The painting led to a study of the old history of New York, and this again to the study of Colonial life in America. Note the large pots of paint, and the way the furniture has been moved about to suit the children's purposes. Canvas may also be used for such painting, or the walls be specially treated.



Painting Scenery on Home-made Stage

[*Eastman Street School, Los Angeles, California*]

One form of free work leads to another. Here is a temporary stage erected and decorated by children for ordinary class plays. Children used to this kind of work have little difficulty in turning their hand to anything.

The British Commonwealth Disintegration or Mutual Understanding ?

F. CLARKE

Professor of Education, McGill University, Montreal

AT a time when the Imperial Conference has not long been closed and when the talk is still of plans for commercial intercourse between the various parts of the Commonwealth, it may not be out of place to call attention to some of those more fundamental determinants of the future that are, as a rule, all too little considered. For a century or more it was the evolution of the *political* structure of the Commonwealth that provided the main thread of interest and the main focus of effort. That evolution is, even yet, not quite complete, nor are the authorities agreed in their respective definitions of the stage of completeness that has been achieved so far. Movement since the South African War has been both rapid and bewildering, and the historian will have no easy task in reducing to orderly narrative those three decades of ferment.

But the Imperial Conference of 1926 did achieve some finality even though the master-mind that framed its formulæ used language that still leaves scope for a comfortable ambiguity. The declarations of that Conference, if they did not conclude the volume, did close an important chapter. One could not observe its effects in South Africa, for example, without realizing that.

The closing of that chapter and the years of increasing economic stress that have supervened, have served now to shift the focus of discussion to the field of economic co-operation, and it is not too much to say that the whole world is watching the issue. But to those of us who are more concerned with the deeper cultural influences that are at work to determine the future, there was something radically unsatisfactory in the debate.

It is not merely that the hopes built upon economic co-operation are pitched too high ; not even that the obstacles in the way of such co-operation are often so gravely under-

estimated. The real source of uneasiness lies in a general failure of *imagination*, a failure to assess rightly the profound differences in ways of life, in habits of thought, and therefore in *Weltanschauung* that are now revealing themselves as between one part of the Commonwealth and another. Political events are an effect rather than the cause of such differences, and cannot be understood apart from some study of them. Further, negotiations for economic co-operation which fail to take full account of them, will proceed in the half-light of cross-purposes and uncomprehended motives, so that their ultimate effect may well be to diminish, rather than to strengthen, the chances of real unity. Newspaper reports current at the time of the discussions which proceeded in England and the Dominions offered more than a hint of such possibilities. Take, for instance, the disposition in Australia to make English finance as well as Australian improvidence responsible for the present troubles. Examples could be multiplied. Anxiety over India and the enormous difficulty of finding common ground as between English and Indian statesmen, do but afford a specially acute instance of that vast tangle of problems of social psychology which surrounds the Sleeping Beauty of Imperial unity.

If, therefore, we believe sincerely that the British Commonwealth has yet a beneficent mission in the world, and that its unity should be preserved, we must look for the grounds of such unity in the right place and must cultivate the roots of it in the right soil. It is a main purpose of this article to suggest that the direction in which we have to look at the present crisis in our history is neither that of politics nor that of economics. We must look rather for what must be called, in a broad sense, 'cultural' influences, for those factors of difference in history and situation out of which spring the conflicting purposes that the

statesman and the political economist must strive to reconcile.

How strange and how fateful it is that popular imagination should fail so generally to grasp the main fact! In the outer world around Great Britain there have grown up in the last century or so great democracies that now approach political maturity, owing allegiance to the British Crown, and yet shaping their respective courses in the light of what they take to be their own interests. In every case the basis of the population, actually and historically, is composed of elements quite other than those which have constituted the traditional 'governing class' of Great Britain. The cultural basis of the life of the Dominions has very little in common with the aristocratic England of last century. From the first day when settlers began to have a voice in their own government and in the building up of the new communities, the chosen path diverged from that which has been followed by the home tradition in England. Often the pioneers in social construction were consciously and even violently in reaction against the class traditions of English government. Their inspiration was derived much more from the Puritan revolutionaries of 1649 than from the aristocratic Whigs of 1688. They had in them much more of Cromwell than of Locke or Burke.

Geography, too, has played its great part. Three of the Dominions lie South of the Equator, a differentiating fact the force of which can be best appreciated by those who have lived on that side of the world. Two of the Dominions are continental in size, one isolated at the far Antipodes, and another having a frontier of 3,000 miles alongside the most powerful state in the world—a state which in life and spirit is far less like England than it is like a Dominion.

Thus history and geography have combined under democratic impulse to produce beneath the British Crown, great communities which really are 'new', and which grow less like England with every step they take along the path of their own destiny. In England itself the fact is often enough uttered by the lips, but hardly ever fully grasped by the necessary effort of imagination. Eloquent perorations

still tell of the way in which the Empire has been built up by the 'public school spirit', and of the certainty that the Englishman will, in any Dominion, find himself at 'home'. How far from historical and actual truth such assertions are is concealed by the ignorance and prejudice of those who make them. Yet they do mischief none the less, and are received with increasing irritation as the Dominions achieve greater maturity and, in the stress of adversity and debate, become more acutely conscious of their own differentiating attributes.

When an Australian or a Canadian talks Protection, therefore, he is not putting forward a fad (though it is a 'fetish' if he talks Free Trade). As a rule he is not even stating the result of a process of reasoned thinking. He is speaking rather with the voice of his community's history, quite as much as an English squire delivering himself on the subject of Trade Unions. A Macdonald and a Bennett debating fiscal policy across a table represent not merely opposed economic doctrines, but two divergent histories. If that is not understood, nothing is understood, and all is cross-purposes.

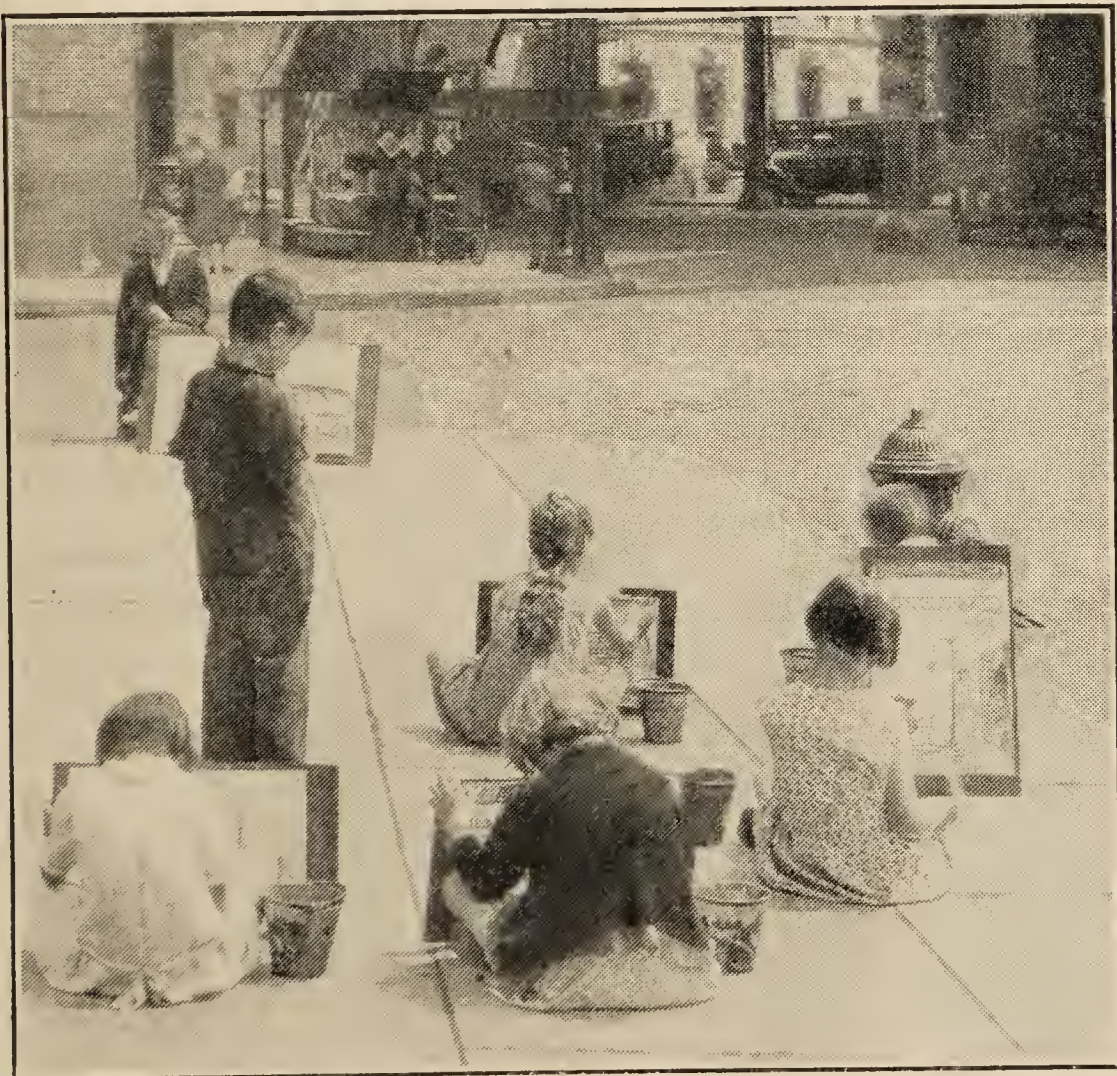
But ignorance is not all on one side. The Dominions are genuinely democratic in spirit (with some abatement for racial prejudices here and there); their voice is the voice of the people in the mass, and of these people by far the great majority are native to the country and have never seen England. The only traditions they have ever known at first hand are such as they have grown up with, and these have been formed under the conditions above described. It is, therefore, not unnatural that they, too, should fail in the effort of imagination that is called for if the truth about the older England is to be understood. For example, impressed by the 'Liberty' label on their own institutions, they tend to underestimate the real personal freedom that is possible among the seeming servitudes of English life, and do not always allow for the possible tyranny of mass-pressure in their own life. They mistake very often for snobbery and stand-offishness the grace and reserve of the English manner, itself the fine flower of a long social history. And they do not always understand why the fastid-

ious eye of the Englishman should be offended by what seems to them obvious and normal and even praiseworthy. In their vigorous adolescence the traits of cultural maturity have for them a suggestion of superior airs, and there is nothing they detest more. Often the imputation is quite unjust and may sometimes be no more than the issue of a suppressed but irritated consciousness of attainments of culture as yet unachieved. But it is honest and genuine and must be taken as the result of a separate history not yet checked and universalized by critical comparison with other histories.

Thus the conditions are all present for calamitous misunderstandings, and we can read the signs already that such a result may not be far off. The moral should be clear enough now. It is that the effort now to be made must come in the field not of politics or

of economics, but in that deeper area of *Education* which underlies them both. The divergencies of culture, emerging in divergent aims and methods of education, have to be precisely assessed and rendered explicit; and the common ground has to be explored with a view to its enlargement if possible.

It is not the purpose of this article to suggest how that is to be done. My object here is only to state the nature of the problem and to throw some light on its genesis. Something is being done already, but most remains to be done. Unless we can come together very soon on some common ground and organize on permanent lines the study of the cultural diversities which are to be the articulations of the one organism, the opportunity will pass, and the forces now making so strongly for disintegration will have their way.



Still another form of free creative work. The children were taken to different points of interest in the neighbourhood of the school, and this picture shows a group absorbed in reproducing different parts of the street that they can see from their vantage-ground. Note the gay paint-pots.

Art on the Street

[*Family Centre Play School, Public School
No. 41, New York City*]

Aims and Methods in Child Development

EDWARD A. BOTT

Professor of Psychology and Director of the Psychological Laboratory, University of Toronto

WHAT should be the aims and methods of workers in the field of child development? This is a comparatively new branch of study which embraces many different fields: pediatrics, nutrition, anatomy, education, as well as psychology. Already the range and number of research studies is enormous, as witness the report on current American work as presented in *The Child in America* by W. I. Thomas and Dorothy S. Thomas, also the twenty-eighth Year Book of the National Educational Association, which covers a somewhat wider field, reviewing studies abroad to date as well as those in America. The impression one gets from such surveys is of the quantity and variety of the work which is being done. But is there unity? The output in the large leaves one a little bewildered. What is the plan or aim behind all this investigation? Have we any philosophy of child research? The child has manifestly been discovered, and is proving to be a mine for research. But having laid claim to the mine are we not somewhat hurriedly parcelling out shares on the market—the motor here, the intellectual there, the emotional to some other speculator. Faced with a somewhat frantic manipulation of findings, one wonders what the real worth of these investments may be. And have we not, perhaps, lost sight of the child? Can one unify these findings in such a way as to enable people to deal better with children?

In face of the present complexity, not to say confusion, in this field of research when it is viewed in the large, there are certain points of principle which I should like to submit for consideration, not as offering a rounded philosophy of child training, but rather in the hope that they may serve as points for discussion among those already working or planning to work in the field of child development.

I wish to question first of all the distinction commonly accepted west of the Atlantic between research and service, that is, between those whose responsibility is 'fact-finding' as

it is called on this side, and those who are concerned rather with relaying or applying facts and principles. One senses a note of complacency among the former which seems to disparage the latter. But what objections are there to this task of interpreting research findings for practical purposes? I submit that such a distinction, borrowed as I believe it is from the physical sciences, is not valid in the social sciences. In natural science it is possible and apparently profitable to deal in concepts and data which grow ever more and more abstract. From this standpoint one often hears knowledge advocated merely for its own sake, caring nothing for application, at least in any immediate sense. But for social science one may seriously question such an attitude, and that for two reasons.

In the first place, the student of social phenomena must participate closely in the situations he wishes to study if he is to do them justice. If he is to study home conditions he must know these at first hand, not merely as case histories in a clinic or staff conference, otherwise he is likely to miss the point. Similarly, if he is studying the pre-school child as a functioning individual, occasional contact with him for tests or experiments is not enough; he must know the child intimately in the situation under investigation and over an extended period, or his conclusions may be as fragmentary as his observations. If we study only isolated processes in the child, who is going to put the jig-saw pieces together for us in order to have the living child? On the other hand, we have the actual child in our midst and there is waiting for study a wide range of his behaviour as an entire individual and also as a unit in a social group. In matters like habit (eating, sleeping), emotional attitudes, social adjustments etc., this can only be done through knowledge gleaned under conditions which approach as nearly as possible those of the child's everyday life. Many of the test situations at present in vogue for the study of

non-intellectual forms of child behaviour are so artificial that it is doubtful if they tell us anything which is of value in the interpretation of ordinary situations. If, therefore, research in child development is to become vital for all persons having responsibility with children, the experimental worker must come out of his laboratory into the home or school situation, which is after all the real laboratory for studying the sort of things that as educators or parents we are concerned to know.

The second reason for challenging the gulf that is becoming fixed between research and service concerns that form of service we call teaching—whether it be of parents or children. There is a growing separation between research and teaching which threatens to be detrimental to both procedures. Not long ago, in conversation with a scientist whose contributions in *Child Study* are well known, our discussion turned upon Parent Education work. I innocently inquired what investigations were in process in that field at their institution. The reply was illuminating. 'Oh, my work is not on the service side; I am in research.' Now so long as educational effort, whether with parents or others, be thought of in that way, and especially by investigators who are responsible for the training of our best students—so long as it means for the most part the handing out of expert judgment or of technical information to be passively accepted—is it deserving of the name of education? I have argued above that research should broaden its laboratory to include practical situations of child life; and similarly should we not agree that true education must always include the temper of research so that in the handling of every situation our action may be based upon insight rather than upon impression or mere authority?

Is this not just what the new education stands for? Instead of making a travesty of education it seeks to foster an active enquiring, experimental, participating attitude in all students at whatever level they may be functioning. The research worker should himself teach and therein supply leadership. But to lead he cannot remain aloof; his leadership should be integrated into the experience of those whom he leads, so that by sharing in his

they may develop power to interpret their own experiences.

Let me give two illustrations of the fruitful inter-play of research and practice. The Director of our School for Child Study has consistently maintained that the persons in charge should be familiar with the smallest detail of the child's routine in the school; there is accordingly no service which he has not personally performed at some time or other for the children whom we are studying. His knowledge is intimate and thorough on the side of service, and because of this the researches he conducts bear closely and significantly upon practical work with children. The other example is that of a teacher in one of the public schools in which we are conducting studies. This teacher worked out a scheme of teaching English history and composition according to a modified form of the Dalton Plan. Her results with pupils have been noteworthy, but in addition she has arranged her lesson assignments with comments on the philosophy underlying her practice in book form in such a way that other teachers might apply what she had worked out. Here was a person supposed to be engaged on the job of school teaching, active on her job, with little or no special training or facilities for research, yet out of the concrete situation she carved a piece of work which well merits that description. Research and service then should not be divorced: they require and enrich each other.

Another point of principle has already been alluded to, but deserves special mention, namely, the difficulty of assembling the whole child out of the parts presented to us by isolated researches in child development. Throughout the biological realm, the facts about an integrated whole can rarely be deduced from knowledge of the parts, that is, one must study the functioning organism as well as its organs. Similarly there are advantages in beginning with the whole child. Indeed, we *must* deal with the entire child if we are to deal with a child at all. This is not unique in child study; it is characteristic of social data generally. Thus if we want to know what constitutes a home we should study an integrated and not a broken home; and

likewise a community or nation. The level of complexity in social science may vary, but at the functional level we have always the living individual as the focal point. Whenever one abstracts from this to deal with some part of an individual, the findings then have meaning only in the light that they cast upon the functioning of the individual as an entity. It is the responsibility of the research worker to show this, for if he will not or cannot it is very doubtful whether anyone else will try.

I should like to advocate a different point of view, namely, that instead of depending too largely on this singling out of special activities, we should adopt a different emphasis wherein the whole individual remains the basic unit. One needs only to recall the trite fact that wherever mental factors are concerned the combination of elemental features yields more than their sum, in order to realize that if we begin with elements there will remain something missing. Hence, to understand what is complex we must be prepared to conduct enquiry at complex as well as at refined levels, to proceed from the general to the more specific and detailed aspects of a situation. Any amount of detail will then be tolerated, for it will fall into its proper place as an elaboration of the larger whole. What, after all, is research? Is it not the study of situations, simple or complex, in order to tease out some of the main factors involved, ignore others, observe and record and experiment with these key factors until we are able, at least to our own satisfaction, to know the *how* of the situation and perhaps to control it? If this is the essence of the research attitude, it is not peculiar to the laboratory or to so-called technical experts; the experience it requires is mainly on the side of patience and practice. It applies for the parent in the home, the teacher in her class, the employer with his men, the doctor or the judge, as truly as for the research worker in his laboratory.

My conclusion here is that the aim of child research should not be merely to find facts or to hand out abstract findings which those concerned with children must interpret as best they can, but to instil the spirit of research into the practice of every person who has to deal

with children. And on the side of method this means that research in the child field must be staged in the complex practical settings of everyday life as well as in the clinic or laboratory.

But even this does not carry us far enough, for the whole child cannot be adequately understood by himself. We need to know the child-in-relation; this involves studying the child-parent relationship, the child in the home, the child in school, and so on. This has an important implication for parent education, which is too often conceived in terms of the dichotomy we have been trying to break down—as purely a service undertaking with no significance for research. Nothing could be further from the mark. When one seriously undertakes to understand the child-parent relationship, parent education groups offer one of the best ways of approaching the facts of the home situation in a thoroughgoing fashion. Parent groups thus become an important medium for research as well as a means through which parents may learn new facts about the child, and new attitudes to their task.

Lastly, let us not overdo the young child. He is much in the limelight at present, but after all, we are studying not the child, but the child as a developing person. He does not remain young. What we require from child study is a contribution towards a more adequate genetic picture of individual development through all its stages. No one portion of the life span is intrinsically more important than another; each stage is supremely important while we are in it, and supremely important as paving the way for the next. The pre-school period is important because it is *early*, with much to follow, and because in some respects it is easy, as compared, for example, with adolescence. But too great emphasis on the pre-school age as being all-important can only breed a crippling pessimism in the minds of those who are past it, weakening their efforts towards new adjustments appropriate to the later years—theirs or their children's. The adjustment process requires research at all levels of life alike, certainly at that of adulthood as much as of childhood.

A Summing Up . . .

WYATT RAWSON

Until recently a member of the Education Committee, Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devonshire ;
now making a study of international trends in Education

TO hear people talk about the need of reform in education one would think that the schools were in a bad state of decay. Yet no one can doubt the enormous improvement that has taken place in them throughout Europe in the last thirty years. Why, then, this rising tide of criticism ? What has happened that we should demand reform with so much vehemence ? It is the success of the schools, rather than their failure, that has caused us to turn upon them so critical an eye. They have made us realize how potent an instrument for social betterment they are. Their original object was mere instruction. They were intended to teach children what they could not learn at home. The poorer classes were to be taught to read, write, and reckon, the richer ones were coached in classical and modern languages and the higher mathematics.

But during the nineteenth century the schools evolved in a quite different direction. Instead of adding a theoretical knowledge to the life and practical training which took place in the family, they began to usurp the functions of the family unit. The Englishman's home might be his castle, the teacher felt, but it was a very poor training-ground for his children. With the belief in progress had come the belief that by means of the school each new generation could be made better than the last. Perhaps Arnold of Rugby's best title to fame is that he saw the English Public School as a place designed for the development of character, and not as the home of mere instruction.

So the schools began to set before themselves an ideal that went far beyond the task they were originally intended to perform. They wished now to offer a genuine apprenticeship to life. The enlightened teacher jumped at this chance of using the school as the training-ground for a nation and began to criticize his more conservative colleagues for being content to remain old-fashioned pedagogues. With this change has gone a change in our attitude towards the

teacher. The days of dame school and nursery-maid are over. Since we now look to the teacher to help in the building of character and in preparing children for life, we ask of him much more than a mere knowledge of his subject. We require him to be himself a fine personality and would wish him to have some experience of life outside the classroom. Ultimately we feel, and I think our English instinct is right, character-building is more important than the acquisition of knowledge. But in spite of our belief we in England have never openly discussed the question of the qualities most needful in a teacher and how they are promoted or destroyed by our school system. Personality can only take fire from personality, and the characters of its teaching staff are the most vital part of any school. But our English fear of the intellect, of the self-conscious or introspective, has prevented us from an attempt to bring this question into the world of conscious discourse. We have preferred to live by our unanalysed instincts and intuitions. These did not fail us as long as our social environment remained a slowly evolving one. But owing to the modern upheaval of society our intuitions have proved themselves often at fault and we have been compelled to rationalize our instinctive opinions and analyse the faith that is in us.

Just recently a book¹ has been published in Switzerland, which is primarily concerned with making conscious this change in the objective of our European schools. It is extremely provocative and has succeeded in dividing educational Switzerland into two camps. It grew out of the answers contributed by readers to a question put to them by the *Schweizer-Spiegel* in the winter of 1927. They were asked to write to say from what they had suffered most at school. The propounder of the question was Dr. Willi Schohaus, Director of the Teachers' Training College at Kreuzlingen in German Switzerland.

¹*Schatten über der Schule*, by Dr. Willi Schohaus ; Schweizer-Spiegel-Verlag, Zurich, 1930 ; M. 12.

He intended to use the accounts as a basis for a diagnosis of the ills from which modern education was suffering. The actual result was to draw up an indictment of the school system and of the teachers in it. So violent did feelings become that the journal lost 400 subscribers, largely teachers who objected to what they considered a slander upon their profession. Dr. Schohaus has now made a representative selection from the several hundred contributions received and prefaced them with ninety pages of introduction, attempting to diagnose the situation and suggest a number of immediate reforms.

He divides his argument into two parts—the faults of the system, and the faults of the teachers. The main fault of the system, he believes, lies in the fact that we have failed to realize that the widening of the purpose of the school must bring with it a change in the system. We cling to tradition and do not mind the school remaining regularly fifteen to twenty years behind the times. We have a reverence for the past instead of a reverence for the growing soul of the child. In consequence, the school is completely satisfied to remain out of touch with life, both intellectually and morally. Let us follow Dr. Schohaus in his diagnosis, adding comments by the way.

In the first place, if education is to be an apprenticeship in living, we should see that the child is made as much a productive as a receptive unit in the school. This does not only mean that manual and artistic work should have a much bigger and more esteemed place in the curriculum, but that history and geography should be more concerned with the present and the future than with the past, that foreign languages should be taught as a means of expression, not as mere grammatical puzzles (the present emphasis on the classical languages seems to him a pure anachronism), and that essays should be written as the outcome of the child's spontaneous thoughts about life, not as dull exercises on set themes. So, too, children should know nature at first hand before they learn about her in the classroom. We still set too much store by a knowledge of facts and neglect the power to think. Knowledge ought to be a means of living the good life and not an end in itself. As it is, we tend to try to turn each child into the worst kind of specialist and over-

load our curriculum in consequence. We even invent that mythical creature, the normal child, by which we take the measure of our pupils, instead of judging each boy or girl by his or her own peculiar abilities—thus often making of the school a torture chamber for the unintellectual child, however gifted he may be in other fields. After all, life does not demand standard workers, but workmen good at particular jobs. The moral isolation of the school is another unfortunate result of our self-satisfaction. The classroom code demands that children shall be good, that is, obedient, industrious and submissive. No man and no teacher would consider this combination of qualities ideal outside the classroom. And yet this type of class discipline is still thought to be valuable in itself. An interminable sitting still is difficult enough to avoid with our monstrously large classes, but that is no reason for paying a superstitious homage to so unfortunate a necessity.

But perhaps the most pernicious result of our traditionalism is its attitude towards friendship and the co-operative spirit. The school has no more important mission than that of bringing children together, of promoting friendship. The family is the supporter of individual efforts: to the school belongs the task of teaching social solidarity. But our system works in the opposite direction. By means of marks, reports etc., we make competition an over-riding incentive in school work. The very arrangement of our classrooms, by which our pupils are compelled to look at each other's backs the whole lesson through, is a proof of the contempt we have for co-operation. And how wicked we think that form of mutual aid which we call in school slang 'cribbing'! In fact, our system is designed to heighten as far as possible a self-centred egoism and delight in surpassing others which we dislike in adults. We teach children to regard life unconsciously as a battle-ground in which each must fight for his own hand. If we wish to base civilization upon mutual aid, we must begin in the classroom by creating there the habit of co-operation and the belief in its value without which our natural selfishness cannot be schooled. Modern methods have shown how easily possible it is to introduce group work into nearly all subjects without making the weaker scholars dependent upon stronger ones. I have often won-

dered whether in England the scorn of the Public School boy for intellectual prowess is not due to the individualistic character of the classroom. In every other department of school life the team spirit is preached and held up for admiration. What is done for mere self-advancement is looked upon with contempt. Is it to be wondered at, then, that the intensely individualistic performances of the classroom are considered of little importance or value?

And now what of the teacher? We have seen that we demand of him an impossible task when we bid him work within a system that balks the natural activity of the child, divorces learning from the realities of life, sets standard requirements for each pupil and insists upon competition instead of co-operation. But are there not certain faults in the attitude of the teacher himself which conspire to turn the school from a place of joy into a prison-house to which children must be driven? Let us ask ourselves what sort of person we need for our new ideal of education, for this work of introducing immature minds to life, this labour of character building. The ideal teacher should have three central virtues. He should have some of the wisdom that enables us to see deep down into the essentials of life; he should have the kind of sympathy that will lead him to understand the needs of growing individuals; he should have a sense of humour, of proportion, the ability not to be upset over trifles or even over real failures, the power of laughing at himself as well as at others.

And what is the teacher's besetting sin in this last respect? Forced as he is to be a constant fountainhead of wisdom to his pupils, he will always be tempted to pose as infallible, to lay claim to a universal knowledge which is inhuman, a pretence that leads only to subterfuge and cant. This attitude imposes upon some children, making them seek in after life for a similarly infallible oracle to whom all secrets are revealed, and thus destroys their independence of mind and power of judgment. The effect on children more robust of intellect, who see through the pose to the hypocrisy, generally unconscious, which lies beneath, is equally bad. They become sceptical of authority and tend to suspect a specialist's verdict because it is a specialist's and honour a quack's because it is a quack's. A teacher, who both knows the limita-

tions of his knowledge and experience, and will admit them, is no rarity—but he is still by no means the predominant teacher type.

A second attitude is fostered by the present enormous size of classes. When the teacher must keep between forty and fifty children peacefully employed for five hours a day, his methods are bound to be rough-and-ready, and a regimentation of the class is only too likely to take place. He turns into a sergeant-major and drill takes the place of education. Particularly is this the case where the teacher is tired or has lost his original energy. For a cast-iron system of discipline frays the nerves so much less than a constant effort to listen and understand. Another tendency seems inevitably attached to the teacher's task as at present understood. The whole system of marks, reports etc., needs overhauling. Its result is to make of the teacher the constant critic of the child. He marks by what is wrong. Where his reports are not colourless, they are a catalogue of faults. Indeed, he will be lucky if he escapes from falling into a habit of sarcasm which will only increase the feeling of inferiority that dogs most children at school. There is yet another difficulty which is inherent in his position. No human being can help having favourites. Distrust the teacher who is so ignorant of himself as to tell you sincerely he has none. But it is possible to prevent showing partiality. In fact it is essential to do so if the teacher is to gain the confidence of his pupils. For nothing so destroys their respect for an adult as believing him unfair. And, lastly, there is that most insidious disease of all—the tendency to think that the child is made for the school and not the school for the child, to make the school's needs paramount instead of the child's, the failure to realize that every case is an exception. We are there to enable each child to develop his own personal nature reasonably and naturally within the social environment of the school. If the school prevents him doing so, we must change the school. The so-called experimental schools, particularly, must not forget that no human life repeats itself and no one human being is ever exactly like another, so that experiment, in the sense of the physical sciences, is impossible in education. They should beware, therefore, of sacrificing the individual development of a child

to any school experiment, however attractive that experiment may be.

We have come to the end of our diagnosis. The picture drawn is so melancholy that, taking it by itself, one is inclined either to blaze with indignation or cry with despair. But it deliberately presents only one side of the picture. Dr. Schohaus promises us another book con-

cerned with the progress already accomplished and in the process of accomplishment in the school. We anticipate it with pleasure. But he has already shown us the direction in which he is looking for reform. Meanwhile, we hope that this volume written with the knowledge of an expert and in the glow of a deep enthusiasm may soon appear in English dress.

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 35

THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN
EDUCATION AND LEISURE
THE ART OF STUDY
EDUCATIONAL POLICY IN SOVIET RUSSIA
DAS WERDENDE ZEITALTER FOR OCTOBER 1930

Books Received

- INTRODUCTION TO MENTAL HYGIENE. By Ernest R. Groves, Research Professor of Sociology, University of North Carolina and Phyllis Blanchard, Psychologist, Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic. This book is intended for the use of social workers as well as for expert psychologists, and to provide for the college student and the general reader an introduction to the mental hygiene movement. Gerald Howe, Ltd., Soho Square, London, W.1. 16s.
- CONDUCT PROBLEMS FOR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL GRADES. By Elvin H. Fishback, author of 'Character Education in the Junior High School and Character Building for Junior-High-School Grades', and Edwin A. Kirkpatrick, author of 'Fundamentals of Child Study', 'Genetic Psychology', 'Fundamentals of Sociology'. The book contains lists of problems, and an index to traits considered in the problems, and is intended for the use of the form or home-room teacher and his pupils. It also contains a short list of reading for teachers, and a similar list for pupils. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, New York, San Francisco and London. 40c.
- PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICE FOR SCHOOL PROBLEMS. By Gertrude H. Hildreth, Ph.D., Associate in Research and Psychologist to the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. Measurement and Adjustment Series, edited by Lewis M. Terman. This book deals broadly with the well-defined contributions of psychology to the task of adjusting educational procedures to the requirements of all pupils, and is intended to give administrators and supervisors the information needed to understand and make most effective use of psychological service. The World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. \$2.16.
- CINQUIÈME CONGRÈS INTERNATIONAL D'EDUCATION MORALE (PARIS 1930). Reports and notes on the three principal themes of the Congress : (1) The Use of History from the Standpoint of Moral Education ; (2) The Part of Discipline and Autonomy in Moral Education ; (3) Practices followed in Moral Education. Librairie Félix Alcan, 108 Boulevard St.-Germain, Paris. Fr. 30.
- PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS. Outlines for Group Discussion. By Ruth Andrus, Ph.D., Director, and May E. Peabody, M.A., Assistant, Child Development and Parental Education, University of the State of New York, State Education Department. This book presents a discussion of the child's environment, both human and material, in terms of relationships which are made concrete when interpreted in the light of each individual's experience; it contains a good American bibliography. The John Day Co., New York City.
- SCIENCE AND HEALTH. By W. B. Little, author of 'Science in the Home', 'Science in the City', 'Science in the Country', 'The World's Food', &c. A book on elementary science, simply written, that will be readily understood by young pupils. The human body, food, fresh air, sunlight, cleanliness, clothing, and so forth, are dealt with in separate chapters, and exercises on the text and suggestions for experiments are given for each. Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., London, Toronto, New York and Melbourne. 2s. 6d.
- THE LIGHTHEARTED STUDENT : I—Simplified German. By Bryher and Truda Weiss. A book for beginners, students, travellers and children. 'Remember five minutes a day are better than two hours once a week.' Rules are simplified, useful words collected and unessential material eliminated, and rhymes are used for memory work. Pool Publications, 26 Litchfield Street, Charing Cross Road, London, W.C.2. 2s. 6d.

Our Examination System

SUSAN PLATT

Examiner, National Froebel Union; Hon. Secy., Examinations Enquiry Committee, N.E.F.

DO examinations interfere definitely with educational progress? Is their value, as a spur, a stimulus, an incentive to effort, offset by the fact that we tend to make them an end in themselves, so that they become our masters instead of our servants?

Let us be frank and honest with ourselves. Let us not say: 'In my school no strain is put upon any pupil to pass examinations; there is no cramming, no special coaching—or at least not much.' Let us not say: 'In a state-aided secondary school, under proper inspection, concentration on the five matriculation subjects to the even partial neglect of other subjects cannot possibly exist.' We know that it *can* exist, and that it does.

We know also that in some elementary schools children of tender age are hastening to the goal of the preliminary scholarship examination which they must take at 10½ years. If this is not so, then why are clever children in some infants' departments so rapidly promoted that one finds them in the scholarship class at the age of nine? Are there *no* scholarship classes, concentrating on English and arithmetic to the partial exclusion of some subjects and a total exclusion of others? We know that such classes do exist, and we know that the whole future career of our boys and girls may be decided by their ability to pass certain tests in English and arithmetic on a given day and at a given hour, at the age of 11+. We know that the teacher whose pupils fail to get scholarships is looked upon too often as a failure himself. The child 'failure' is sadder still. The prestige of the school is often raised or lowered according to the number of scholarships gained.

Are there not many pupils who fail to pass the scholarship test, yet who are able leaders of all school activities, capable organizers, good workers, good craftsmen or musicians, good at games, stalwart in character? The teachers have far too weak a voice in the assessment of the quality of the work of their pupils.

They should make their voices loud and speak out the words they so often mutter.

We are encouraging the activity of the young child; we are giving him freedom of movement in the classroom, encouraging project methods in the infants' school, and making provision for the better teaching of arts and handicrafts in the junior and senior schools. But if our pupils fail to pass the scholarship examination, many delightful avenues which we have thus opened up for them are closed.

We have struggled to get freedom for the children, a disciplined freedom which takes daily count of the rights of other children to live their lives equally freely. But we deny freedom often to our young enthusiastic teachers; we damp their eagerness and clip their wings because examinations dominate our programmes.

Why should our children of 11+, applicants for admission to the senior school, to the central school, or to the secondary school, not be judged on what they *can* do instead of on what they can *not* do? We shall find out what they can do by studying their school records, the reports of their teachers, of the head of the school, of the Inspector. Surely it is these who should say for what type of future education a boy or girl is best fitted at 11+.

We have reorganized our schools for the very purpose of giving the right direction to talent, the right opportunities, yet we put a barrier in the upward path which has no justification at all in such an enlightened system.

Let us turn to the secondary school. Here some hall-mark is needed at 16 years to give evidence of good work done, and ability to proceed to further education.

In the secondary schools, whose programmes are dominated by the matriculation examinations of the universities, the 'academic' type of boy or girl scores all along the line. Only five to eight per cent of the pupils in secondary schools go on to the university, yet even in

connexion with those who succeed eventually in getting honours degrees, there are grave doubts that all is not well. Under our present system of choosing our pupils for the secondary schools chiefly on the basis of English and arithmetic, many enter who are not in any sense fitted for the type of education given there. We all know that break-downs among young teachers in their first posts are many and distressing, and an honours degree may be bought at too high a price, to be paid for in the years of responsibility to come.

Fifty per cent of the girls in our secondary schools leave without any certificate at all. We cannot suppose that these are failures. Many prove themselves to be capable citizens in after life. They are only 'failures' because we try to educate them in subjects in which they are not educable. Here comes in the plea of Dr. W. Edwards (formerly Chief Inspector of the Central Welsh Board) that *every* pupil should be given a 'certified record' and that we should cease to use the words 'pass' and 'failure'.

The universities as well as the schools are pleading that matriculation shall be dissociated altogether from the first school certificate. Heads of schools and assistant masters and mistresses are pleading for more recognition for cultural and practical subjects in the school programme.

The waste of talent at present is appalling—the talent of the enthusiastic, eager teacher narrowed into examination channels—the talent of the pupils to whom we refuse the education they desire because they cannot pass the unsuitable tests we set them. An embryo craftswoman, whose work is artistic and beautiful, cannot enter a trade school because she fails in arithmetic. The young embryo doctor or scientist or linguist is not allowed to study a subject altogether congenial because he fails in one that is altogether uncongenial. The stress and strain of grinding up subjects in which we are not educable causes many a break-down. Doctors tell us that break-downs are very rare indeed where the subject studied is congenial.

That initiative, leadership, and other fine qualities cannot be tested by our present examination system, goes without saying.

That the nervous and highly-strung are often (though not always) at a disadvantage, is also true. It is to be deplored that many have to earn a living by coaching and cramming unwilling pupils, and by passing or failing candidates of whose individualities they know nothing at all.

Yet there are hopeful signs in the formation of committees of research and inquiry, and many reforms are even now being carried out. Reports from some of the committees are being published, including one from the committee of the New Education Fellowship.¹

The day draws near when employers will no longer ask applicants for posts if they have passed matriculation. They will go instead to the masters and tutors, as they do now in the central schools—those fortunate schools which have no special leaving certificate. They will say: 'Is he an upright straightforward lad? What are his special outstanding qualities, his special bents and interests, his special subjects?'

The parent will no longer urge the teacher to get his boy through matriculation at all costs. The university authorities will say: 'Does this candidate really want to study languages further, or science, or classics, or medicine? Then by all means let him come to us, and if we find him to be a good and earnest student, with high ideals, and distinct aptitude for his subject, let him stay, and we will give him not only every opportunity to study under the best conditions but also our hall-mark at the end of his course.'

Parents should try to find out the natural bent of their children and cease to force them along uncongenial lines. Examiners and employers should give candidates every help to do their best, in viva voce or otherwise. There is no point to be gained by 'catching a candidate out'.

Teachers should have more faith and more courage, less patience with existing conditions, and less hesitancy in stating their convictions.

And so to the millennium!

¹Interim Report: The first School Examination in Secondary Schools. Examinations Enquiry Committee, N.E.F. (English Section), 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1. 6d.

The Dominant Mother

PRYNS HOPKINS, M.A., Ph.D.

WHY is a sense of freedom as against the habit of submissiveness valuable to a child? First, because it is a requisite of mental health. Second, because freedom leads to an intellectual development, not along lines of traditionalism, but of branching out into new fields. And it is important, thirdly, in such fields as artistic work, where it is fairly obvious that anything in the way of a strict moulding to type and obliteration of personality interferes with the highest kind of achievement.

The emotional factor, with which I am dealing, underlies all these to a large extent.

The child's first, most intimate, associate is his mother. So it depends particularly on her whether his nature will be allowed to expand in directions of freedom or be subjected to some kind of moulding process.

Children who grow up in subordination to their mother never, even after she has passed away, are likely to possess aggressiveness in attacking their life problems.

Another interesting effect of the domination of the mother is that she is unable to exert the same influence in bringing out the child's own thoughtfulness about the problems of life that she is able to do where she subordinates her craving for power. Let me illustrate by the case of a man I will call Kenyon. When a child, he and his mother were intimate and friendly. They used to go for long walks, when she would talk to him about various things like treating animals kindly or the importance of truthfulness. It was her greatest hope that he would be guided by her good counsel through life, and in many ways she succeeded. But she was never able to achieve the attaining of his confidence. The last person he would tell his secrets to was his mother.

This is a common situation. For the mother or teacher whose interest in her boy is largely that of forming him along lines that she has predetermined, presents a threat to any confidence on his part. He knows that whatever he tells her is likely to be used by her against him. If he wishes to retain his personality, he must be on his guard.

One type of aberration that the austere mother may produce in her son consists in splitting up his love for her into two components. The little child's relationship with his mother is a relationship of his body to hers; he is held to her breast, his hands explore her form, and he feels the warmth of her skin. Therefore the love he feels towards her in the beginning is like that of a lover for his mistress. That fact comes into conflict with a growing mass of prohibitions. He is presently no longer allowed to sleep in her bed, his expressions of love must dissimulate their sensuous character, and soon he realizes that she is not, as he fondly imagined, the woman he is one day to possess as his own wife.

So then comes a splitting of his attitude towards women. One type consists of women of social prestige and refinement who, because they so much resemble his mother, are forbidden. For the other, more sensuous, component he has to search among other types of women. Oliver Goldsmith's play, *She Stoops to Conquer*, is a presentation in literature of exactly that situation which is so common in actual life—where the hero, who is known by his intimate friends to be a dashing gallant among girls of low station, is shy and clumsy among women of his own class. The heroine solves the problem by posing as a barmaid.

Other motives of a more positive type also enter into the relationship of masterful mother and submissive child. When the child is born, the first thing to be done is to break the umbilical cord which is the physical connection through which the very blood of the fœtus contacted that of the parent. In all mammals a period follows during which the mother nurses the child from her breasts. If that period is cut short prematurely the child does not develop so well; on the other hand, an excessive period of nursing also has bad effects.

All this is true also of psychological weaning. Mistakes, of course, in the physical weaning itself may have their emotional reverberations. They affect especially erotisms of the mouth zone and may give rise to some arrest of the libido at

the oral erotic stage. Characteristic of the orally fixated type of character is what we call the 'spoilt child'. As Dr. Edward Glover expresses it, the spoilt child seems to feel that the world, without demanding any return on his part, should offer its nipple to nourish him.

The mentally unweaned type of individual is halted at the very outset of the growing-up process. Frances Wickes gives an example of a man who throughout maturity and middle age still remained as attached to his mother as though they were connected by an invisible cord. When he was 50 she died, and he suffered acute distress of mind and body, as his own personality was entirely undeveloped and he now had no one to depend on.

At any boarding school you may see a mother bringing her child but unable to leave him. Daily she comes to see her darling; and though he has been happy with his companions, when he sees mother his home-sickness is revived. Perhaps she ends by taking him away from school. I think of one boy who constantly has been dependent on his mother rescuing him from every unpleasant situation. When he went to a Swiss boarding school he found that things were not as pleasant as at home. He wrote a series of letters denouncing the school. His father took the attitude that now was the time for him to learn to face the world; but his mother prevailed, and they took him away. Up to the present time, whenever that boy finds himself in a difficult situation, he appeals to his mother.

The maternal desire to assume all responsibility may also have the following motive, namely, the mother may really enjoy the responsibilities for the sake of the power that goes with them, and may look upon her offspring as something to make just what she likes out of.

From the early delight of every infant in squeezing and shaping material of all sorts there gradually develops an interest in moulding plasticine, sand, and other objects; early tendencies towards smearing and daubing also lead to activities like drawing, and making marks that express some creative idea. Manipulation of material things and recasting solid objects according to our will, is a legitimate sublimation of what are called anal interests. Unfortunately we try to manipulate the people around us. To do

so is peculiarly tempting to the mother surrounded by dependent young.

If there is one rule to be laid down for teacher and parent alike, it is to avoid test situations. The child at school will find a line of action that is on the border-line between obedience and disobedience. For instance, he will follow the teacher's instruction, but so slowly and aggravatingly that she will lose patience. The woman who is tactful and clever will appear not to observe things of that sort, up to a point where defiance becomes too obvious. Thus she does not allow the child to dictate the situation.

The tactless person gets dragged constantly into such conflicts. She then may resort to the technique called 'breaking the will' of a child. The old-fashioned way of breaking a colt to the saddle was by ruthlessly fastening the saddle on, mounting, driving spurs into his flanks, and letting the terrified animal see that he only got terribly whipped and spurred in any attempt to throw his rider. Finally his spirit was broken, and he became submissive. Even with horses it is realized now that by this method the animal will lose much of the energy and fire which make him valuable, and that better results accrue from more considerate treatment.

To domineer over the child may break his spirit. He becomes outwardly submissive. Where he thinks he is watched and likely to be caught he will not commit any offence. But all this is at the expense of depriving him of fine qualities which may be most useful both to himself and to society, and at the cost of generating inwardly a terrific hatred.

Now, sometimes a parent says: 'I am a believer in these new ideas of liberty. In fact, I go so far as never to punish my child in any way, or never to exert any authority.' You will find, probably, that he or she relies on long-winded argument. I myself made this mistake in my Californian school. I started by telling the children that they had an undisputed right to decide whether to attend classes or not. If they were several times absent I would merely invite them into my office to talk about it. I thought it very significant that I always persuaded them to return to their class. One day, however, revolt flamed up. The children said they were tired of 'liberty' and wanted a different regime. Very much astonished, I exclaimed: 'Whatever you

think best, you are free to do. I can't understand your attitude.' To that the spokesman answered, 'You rule us by your arguments.'

It was literally true. Children cannot compete in dialectic with adults. Their attitude remains exactly the same, but they find themselves in a subordinate situation through our being cleverer at arguing than they. They submit against their will. But one should be on guard against imagining that the child is a free personality really convinced. Much better is it to be frank and say: '*I wish* you to do so and so' than, in a long-winded argument, to bring up reasons vaguely intellectually comprehensible to the child, and wear him down to resentful submission.

So much for the motives of domination. In contrast to them is the motive of love.

The note in child-upbringing two decades ago was to pay supreme attention to the regularity of the day's routine, carrying on everything by rule of thumb. That idea, while it signalled a certain advance over haphazard methods dictated by a mythical 'mother instinct', and while its physical hygiene resulted in lower infant mortality, was on other grounds not satisfactory.

Its output was the child you find in a well-regulated orphanage. Everyone knows that children from even the best orphanages show a lack not only of affection for others, but of spirit and even intelligence. Even state authorities and juvenile courts which send out children whose own homes are unfit for them, try to place them with foster parents rather than in an orphanage.

The child's spirit must be fed on love as his body is fed on bread. This spiritual nourishment is lacking in a mere institution.

Or again a basis is laid for nervous troubles where antagonism exists between mother and father. For example, the daughter may tend to identify herself with the mother, so that any unwholesome maternal attitude becomes with the girl more or less constitutionally ingrained. If she sees in her mother a woman cold and unresponsive to her father, she herself, by identification, may develop into a woman who is incapable of anything but frigidity towards her

own husband and so have an unhappy marriage.

To be sure, we cannot dogmatize. For such an attitude of the mother may result in the girl's taking the father's side, feeling that he is unfairly treated.

Contrasted with the above are homes which supply, if not too much love, at least an unwise love. A frequent and typical situation of that sort exists where the mother is deprived of the affection she wants from her husband. She tries to find in one of her children an outlet for the sensuous type of love especially that should exist between her and her husband. The result is that the children grow into adults whose emotions are not normal.

Another case given by Wickes is that of a little girl who was caught cheating. Her mother happened to come into the schoolroom at the dramatic moment, and the child immediately burst out crying, declaring that she had never cheated before and that she had done it now because her mother was so anxious about her marks at school. The mother took her into her arms and said: 'You surely won't punish her when she did it all to please her mother?'

Where such an attitude is taken the mind of the child is utterly confused, and he has no idea what real standards of behaviour are required.

To summarize: the mother plays the greatest part in the life of the child. The very earliest years of life, those all-decisive of character formation, are ruled by her. From motives of fear that go beyond any thing justified by real dangers of our civilization, fears that may connect with the mother's own up-bringing, or with situations in her married life, or from the passion for moulding—taking a sadistic attitude and forcing the child to take a masochistic attitude—the mother may be prompted to dominate the life of the child to an extent not for his good. She may do this by making him too submissive a nonentity, and depriving him of all responsibility. She may stunt him by depriving him of the love which he needs and which must be apart from any desire to mould. Or she may deform the character of her child by treating him as a symbol of her husband.

Science Work at Dauntsey's School

GEO. W. OLIVE, M.A..

Headmaster

GROWTH and development will usually contain enough interesting material for a story, and for this reason a ' sketchy ' account of Dauntsey's School (West Lavington, Wiltshire), and of its science work is given, though it is to be understood that there is nothing outstanding to relate.

It should be mentioned that a period of seven years spent as an assistant under Sanderson of Oundle provided no small stimulus towards regarding educational matters from a newer viewpoint. Following upon this came the opportunity of developing a school under two dominant conditions, the first a wide range of liberty of action, and the second a need for sensible economy.

In making a start with the process of development the point of first importance, it seemed, was gradually to organize the whole personal element of the school—governors, parents, staff, and boys—into one harmonious team that would strive towards a definite objective, understood as completely as possible by all concerned. At the same time it was necessary to lay down principles and to introduce methods that would translate thought into action. The fundamental ideas underlying the educational policy may briefly be stated as follows :

Education should prepare a boy (or girl) for life in the full sense of the term. The school must therefore attempt to combine in one educative whole the best features of the great educational tradition of England, with the necessary adaptations to new needs as defined by modern world conditions. This implies a wide but evenly balanced curriculum, a real collaboration between masters resulting in a sympathetic understanding between the vari-

ous departments, and an enthusiasm among masters and boys alike that is capable of producing abundant and effective service. Creativeness and the spirit of co-operation must be manifested in all the activities of the school. There must not only be a sensibility to the demands of modern life but also an interest in and a capacity for practical achievement. For this reason ample facilities must be provided by means of libraries, laboratories, workshops, and the outer world of nature.

The essence of the school must be a virile community life, which cannot exist except in an atmosphere of frankness and goodwill. Masters, therefore, meet frequently and discuss matters affecting the welfare of the school, and a School Council, composed of form representatives, prefects, and the Headmaster, also meet for the same purpose.

As a guiding principle the Headmaster has to remember that it is his job to effect, so far as it be possible, an ideal marriage of professional technique with a richness of community life, in which the partners are co-mates and neither partner in the concern is playing second fiddle.

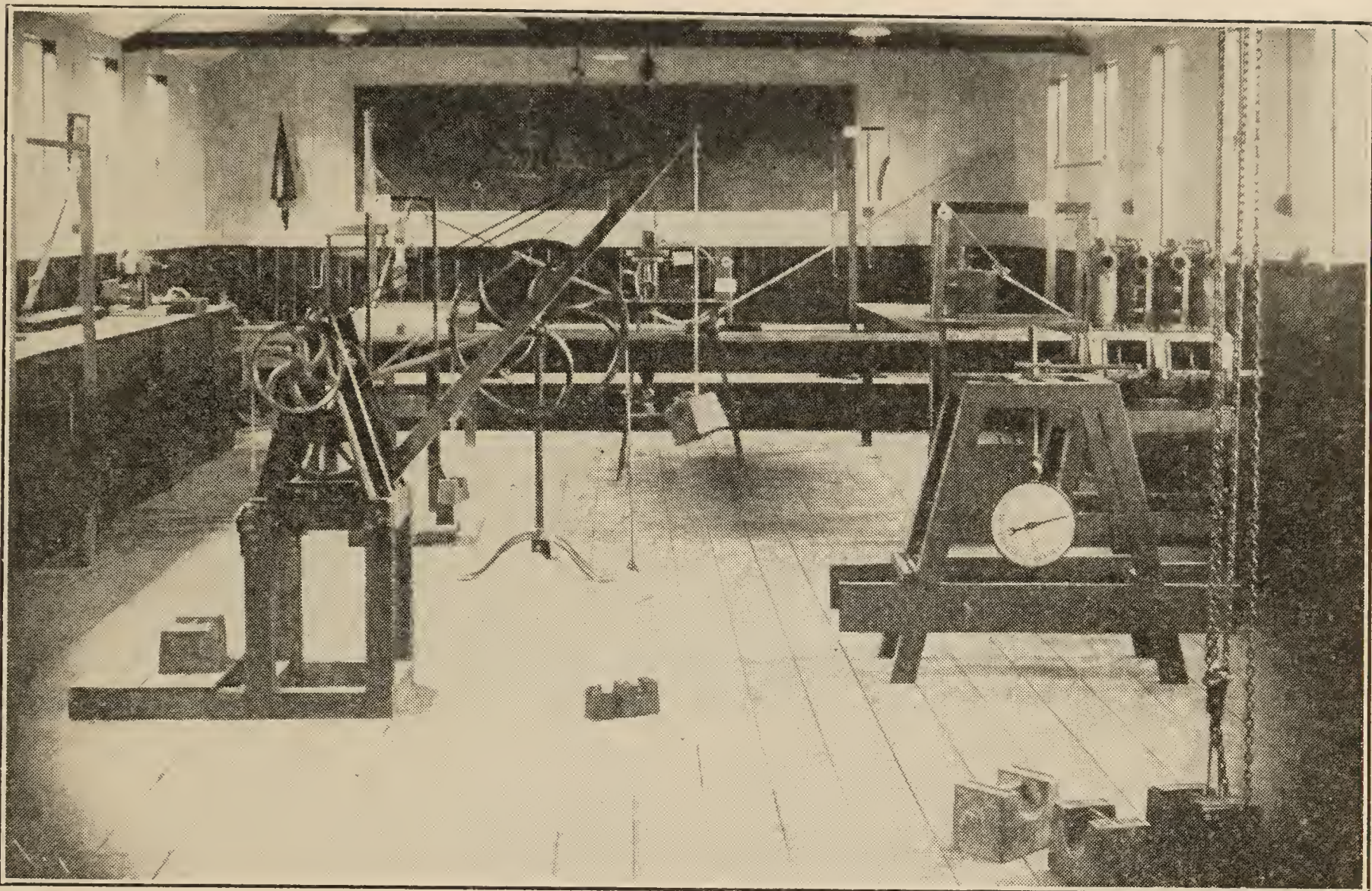
In a fair measure all this has been achieved at Dauntsey's School because there really did exist from the very first, a wide range of liberty of action.

The other condition was the need for exercising a pretty strict yet sensible economy. What might well have been regarded as disadvantageous to progress has proved in the long run to be a distinct advantage, because economy has shown herself the mother of adventure, and success attends adventure only by the way of careful planning and thorough experimenting.

It amounts to this, that

*Can general science and
mathematics be interwoven
and given to all boys in
the lower school?*

*In this article Mr. Olive shows
that the experiment is
being successfully carried
out at Dauntsey's School*



*Applied Mathematical Laboratory : Building and Equipment Planned and Constructed by the Boys
[Dauntsey's School, West Lavington, Wiltshire]*

if one has to count every penny and make it go as far as possible one at least spends wisely.

Out of this need for strict economy there has also arisen, as in many other schools, a vigorous spirit that brings together boys and masters, parents and governors, into one organic whole—a spirit that has resulted in many practical co-operative efforts, such as the equipping of a new boarding house with furniture made by the boys themselves, the erection and equipping of an applied mathematics laboratory, the construction of tennis courts and a golf course, the production of stage furniture and lighting.

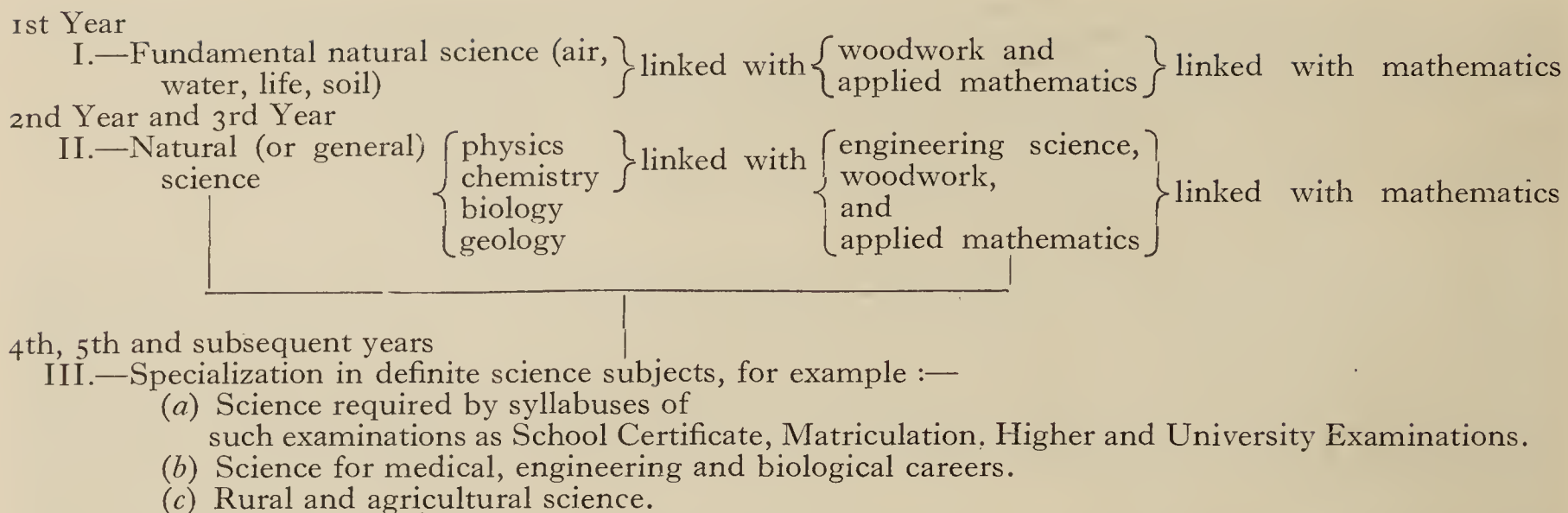
The great thing for a school that has begun life vigorously is to keep young. One method of maintaining a freshness of outlook that has been tried and found of value is to produce an annual report, in which each member of the staff formulates his aims, describes his methods, and outlines the work in progress. This report is intended for circulation among all who are interested, and is consequently open for criti-

cism by those most concerned in the welfare of the school.

Enough has been said about the general lines upon which the school is run. Now follows a brief account of the science and mathematical work, an account which is composed largely of passages taken directly out of the report referred to above.

The first point to emphasize is that in the earlier years general science and mathematics are interwoven and that this groundwork of general science is given to all boys in the lower school in place of a limited knowledge of one or two science subjects. This wider application will have, it is felt, a far-reaching effect. Limitation of outlook will give place to wider vision. It will provide greater support for the fundamental scientific laws, and it will be possible not only to give the humanistic aspect every emphasis, but to engender those qualities of accuracy and manipulative skill that form so important a part of general education.

SCHEME OF SCIENCE WORK



The groundwork for the youngest boys is provided by a simple course of study in air, water, life, and soil. On this foundation are built up the further studies in chemistry, physics, biology and geology that are linked up and regarded as portions of a definite whole, viz. general (or natural) science.

Such work can lead to stimulating co-operative efforts as, for example, 'The Inconvertibility of Energy', in which a class of boys was engaged. Or again, a project of multiple interests, such as 'The Chalk Plain of Salisbury', was found to maintain the interest of a group of boys so that they engaged in studies of a large range which included geology, chemistry, physics, biology and natural history, archæology, and history, agriculture and economics.

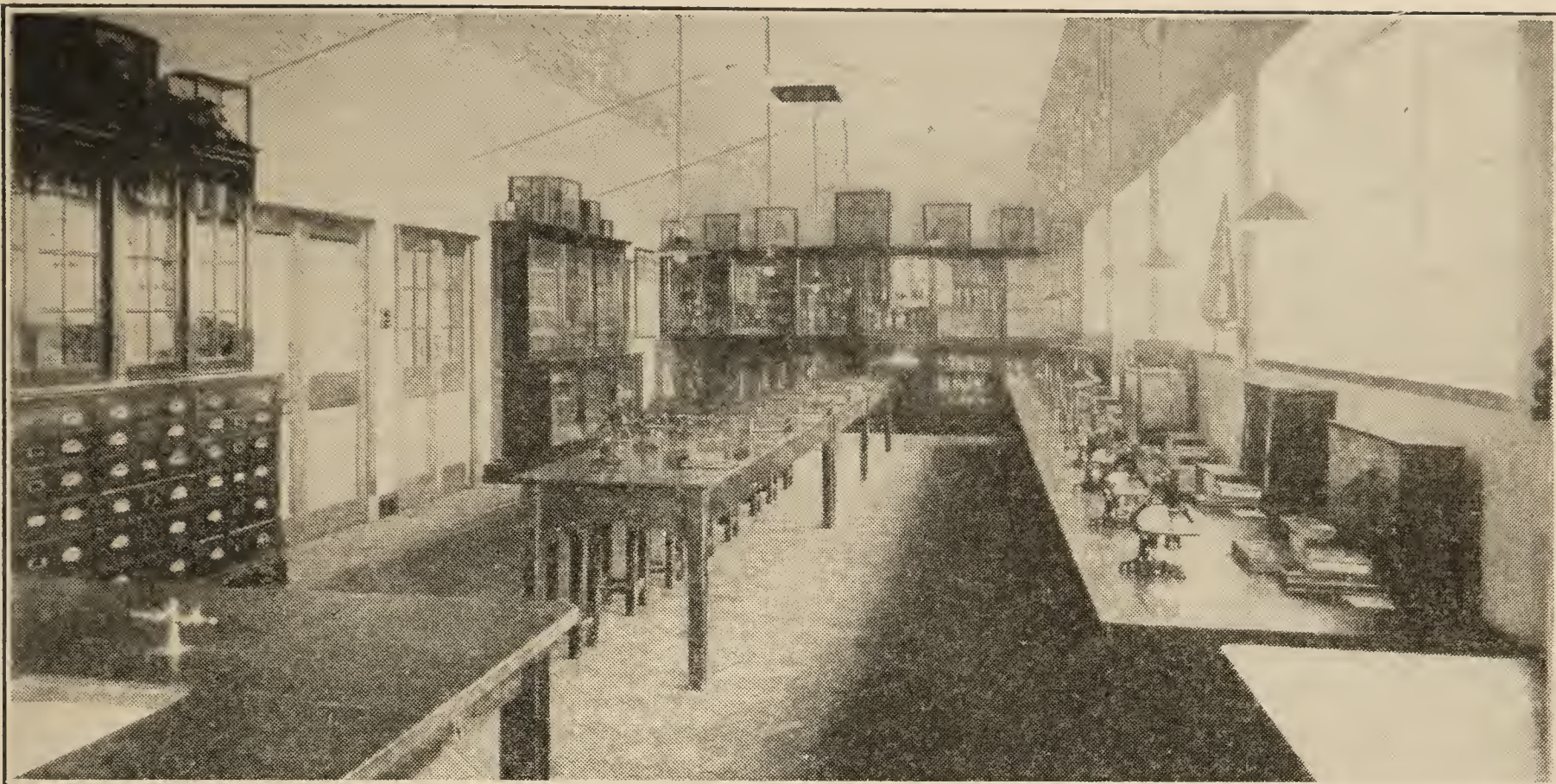
On this groundwork of general science, correlated with mathematics, boys proceed later to the 'subject' studies. The description of these must be necessarily brief, and one taken mainly from the last annual report.

MATHEMATICS

The objects in the teaching of mathematics are as follow :—(1) To give boys the knowledge of how to use figures for ordinary everyday calculations. (2) To show the practical applications of mathematics to the sciences, pure and applied. (3) To give the power of manipulating mathematical formulæ and conceptions in the abstract. It is felt that this stimulates the power of detached thought and widens it. (4) To develop the power of logical and clear thinking by means of geometry.

The above objects are perhaps of less interest than the methods adopted to secure them. It

should first be stated that mathematics, more than most subjects, suffers from the dullness inherent in a rigid system of class teaching. It can too easily degenerate into a deadly grind at matters which have no connexion with everyday life, and no very obvious utility. To bright boys, it becomes in such circumstances either a boredom or a soulless quest for marks, and to duller boys it becomes a matter for despair and hatred. The methods adopted, then, aim at bringing life into the subject. To give instances, many of the ordinary processes of arithmetic may be taught practically by means of physical measurements, mechanics, engineering. Trigonometry may be taught by the actual use of surveying instruments in determinations of the height of buildings, the area of land etc., processes which involve precisely similar calculations to those furnished by examples in textbooks. Indeed, it is very soon found that more theory is needed for the practical example than for the 'book' one, and boys are the keener to acquire that theory in order to solve the problem. Further, practical problems generally call for more co-operation and more group work, both of which are felt to be of the highest educational value. The competitive instinct, too, which is so strong in boys, may be fostered in a form better than the selfish individual one, by arranging group competitions in which the work of each individual boy is essential to the success of the group. Such competitions may be utilized to tide over the less living parts of the subject, the necessary 'hackwork' of algebra, for instance. Here, too, a partnership system is attempted, whereby brighter boys are given a task of

*Biological Laboratory**[Dauntsey's School, West Lavington, Wiltshire]*

helping on their weaker brethren, a method which would appear to sustain the interest of both.

Turning to another aspect, it is generally recognized that the teaching of mathematics and that of science should go hand in hand, the dependence of the latter on the former being of the first importance. Here the size of the school becomes a definite advantage since the whole of the mathematics teaching is in the hands of the masters who take science. Thus a course of applied mathematics is running as part of the physics course and as part of the engineering, and this serves as an almost perfect link between science and mathematics.

PHYSICS

Since the main object of physics is the study of how 'all things work', the necessity for exact quantitative work is easily apparent; thus without apparent stress the boy is brought firstly to apply mathematical methods to the working out of problems of everyday science or of results obtained in practical work, and secondly, to develop accuracy both in reasoning and observation.

To obtain the main object, it is necessary to work on as large a scale as possible, to refer all problems and exercises to the 'real thing' and

not to examination curiosities. To obtain the subsidiary aims, as much individual practical work as apparatus permits is given throughout the course; and cross reference is continually made with mathematics in order to break down the artificial barrier of the mathematics classroom. For example, graphical methods are used frequently in representing results; negative quantities have to be used in dealing with thermometer scales, and the evolving of formulæ, especially their transposition according to the unknown quantity, can be shown when dealing with definite measurements.

CHEMISTRY

The teaching of chemistry may be said to have three main objects.

(1) To give boys as great a knowledge of the chemistry of common life as possible, and to bind that knowledge together by means of the theories of chemistry. An attempt is made all the time to make boys realize that chemistry is not a matter outside life, but a part of it.

(2) To train boys into taking a scientific attitude towards life.

(3) To give those who are going to need chemistry in after life as a technical subject as full a knowledge as possible. This often means paying a strict regard to the syllabuses set by

universities, in order to enable boys to take examinations.

APPLIED MATHEMATICS

It is impossible adequately to describe the work done in applied mathematics or in biology. In connection with the former subject it may be of interest to mention that the building seen in the photograph, and the entire equipment were planned and constructed by the boys themselves. Here they perform experiments with their own apparatus on simple measurement, relative density, work, power, horse-power, sliding and rolling friction, dry and lubricated friction, mechanical advantage, stress, brake horse-power, and so on.

BIOLOGY

A photograph is also given of the biological laboratory. From this room lead off a natural history room which contains plants and animals

under observation, a greenhouse, a microprojection and epidiascope room, where living creatures expose their secrets to the observant boys, and finally, a large aquarium room. This is a specially constructed room that contains a number of large slate tanks arranged after the manner of those to be seen at the London Zoological Gardens. Through the marine tanks 1,000 gallons of aerated sea water continually circulate, and in them live animals of the sea under as normal conditions of life as can be. Similar circulation of fresh water takes place through the fresh water tanks by the action of electric pumps automatically controlled. The work and supervision of the many activities of these biological buildings rests largely in the hands of boys. In this way their interest becomes the keener, their studies the more profound and real, and the ultimate purpose of biological work the more closely achieved.

How the School can help the Home

ALICE WOODS, M.A.

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ONE of the striking features of modern education is that by slow degrees co-operation is taking the place of competition; hence there is a stronger feeling than there has been for years that home and school must work hand in hand.

An advanced educator writes thus: 'We must from the outset train the young mind to habits of co-operation . . . otherwise the individual will fail to make a contribution to life. . . . Hence the importance of the school—perhaps it is even greater than that of the home. *The parents may not see the meaning in life!* They may be selfish, out to take and not to give. The child needs to be inducted into a genuine social life, and in this the school may play a prominent part.' I have italicized what seems to me the keynote of the school—helpfulness to the home. It is to help to make clear the meaning of life. First, then, let us consider

in what way the best schools and best homes are working together.

First and foremost, education is to be for service rather than personal success, and hence comes the need for co-operation rather than competition. Second, there must be greater freedom for the child to develop his own special gifts and powers as a contribution to a genuine social life. Hence comes the favourite expression, 'self-realization', which is so often misunderstood as meaning: 'Let the child do exactly as he wants'; whereas the real meaning is, 'Help the child to the realization of his best self, and to gain true self-control of the lowest; self-government by inward, not outward authority is to be the aim—the outward used only as a help to the inward'. Our third point is the need of better training and equal opportunity during adolescence in every rank of society. A fourth point is the recog-

nition of arts and crafts as a means of moral and intellectual development. Fifth comes the need for reform in religious and sex teaching, which should lead to a recognition of the child's demand for solitude and quiet, even silent, periods. Lastly it is being realized that unless home and school work together in close conjunction we shall have little hope of definite approach to our ideals. It is this last point that is to be the subject of this article.

The reason why close relation should exist between home and school is because their separation brings several dangers. First, lest, with school and home in water-tight compartments, a double self should be engendered in the child. Second, lest the teacher should work without the help of the most potent influences in the child's life, that of the father and mother. Both in day and boarding schools, home influences are far too often ignored and the pupil may be made to feel that to support home views means disloyalty to the school, and vice versa.

If the school is very much set on its own glorification and wants to shine beyond all other schools in the eyes of the world, it is apt utterly to disregard the parents' wishes. Pupils are not allowed to take examinations for which the parents are anxious they should sit, perhaps because they believe in a little wholesome failure for son or daughter; the school will not risk its own honour; and the gap between home and school interests widens.

There is no doubt that great difficulties exist, for granted a home with high aims in view, the school that would give a helping hand may not be within reach. The parent is trying to train the child for service, while the only schools available are teaching the lesson, 'Yourself first, others to follow', and prizes, place-taking and separation of the sexes are the order of the day. On the other hand, the school may be doing its utmost to carry out the above-mentioned aims, while the parents are saying, if not in words, in actions: 'We want our children to succeed in comparison with others. Our boy should be earning money to help us. Success for us means money-getting, wealth, superiority.'

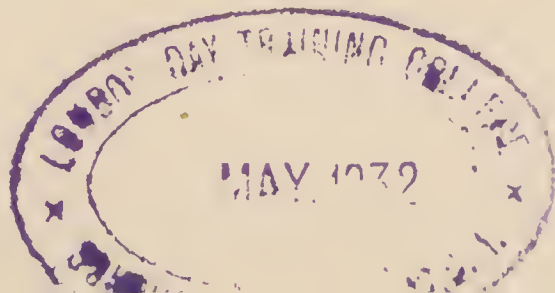
Sometimes parents are so anxious to shirk responsibility that they are inclined to hand

over their children to any school that seems to promise fairly well, and to take no further trouble about them, being even rather reluctant for them to have long holidays, and sending them off at an early age to boarding schools. They do not care enough to want help from the school. Parents are too often 'ignorant of the meaning of life'.

What *can* the school do then to help the home? How can it bring about that mutual trust which would mean so important a reform in education? So far school and home have not been in sufficiently close union. In the present day, schools often take up an attitude of more or less independence of the parents. They refuse to believe that it is possible to get into close connection with them. They say that parents are so inconsiderate, that if they invite them to discuss the children they come at inconvenient times, and then show no desire to arrive at mutual understanding, but to find fault. Parents complain about the school regulations, say that their child is not being taught the most useful subjects, want alteration made for him alone, and think that he is misunderstood by his teachers. No signs are shown of a real wish to understand school methods or school aims.

These very difficulties should stir up the school to set to work to conquer them, and make it strive to find remedies. In New York at the School of Ethical Culture perhaps as much has been done as in any school known to the writer, to bring home and school together. There parents form an integral part of school life. They help in the school canteen, come to lectures and join in discussions, and are always ready to give a hand when the staff is busy with preparation for school festivities.

A recent visitor to the U.S.A. writes: 'Parent-Teacher Associations are opening up everywhere; parents are attending courses of lectures upon the work of the school and on child-psychology. A very clear conception of, and interest in, the education of the children is thus being fostered.' The *New Era* for November gives an interesting account of the way in which the nursery schools in Winnetka, under Superintendent Washburne, are firm in their demand for parent co-operation, refusing to enrol children unless the parents are willing



to work with the school staff.

In our own country two outstanding efforts to bring home and school together in elementary schools have met with marked success during the ten years since their plans were described in *Educational Experiments in England*. The Head Master of New Earswick School, York, writes: 'The parents here have responded beyond my greatest hopes of ten years ago; the general level of keenness for education is much higher now.' He says that parents come to the school and ask it to help them in home difficulties, but that one great trouble is to get the parents to make sure of sufficient sleep for the children. This the school is trying to deal with. From Outwood and Kearsley School, Mr. O'Neill writes that the work and support of the parents grows marvellously. His ideal is that 'the school belongs to the village, and is its to use'. Hence parents are given every opportunity to lend a hand in the children's occupations. They are asked to make things for the school, for equipment, or for the canteen which the children conduct themselves most successfully. They are invited to join the children's singing and allowed to borrow a book from the library. The free and easy atmosphere makes the parents feel at ease. 'They see their children working the school, not as torments in a limited home, but as little business people, efficient managers, in a place where there is *equality* for parent and child, and where there is room for all.'

It seems clear that on the part of the school, parents should be made more welcome to it. They should be allowed to visit it, to see the work the children are doing, not only the show work, but their ordinary productions. Fortunately, in some modern schools much of the work is now done in groups, and the parents should be made acquainted with this group work, and their own child's contribution should be studied. Thus the plan of co-operation can be made familiar to the parent. In the school at Waldorf, founded by Rudolf Steiner, 'teachers' conferences were held every week in order to draw together the threads of all the different experiences. At these meetings all knowledge and experience acquired is to be

pooled. Their object is for teachers to maintain their vitality instead of growing old in Soul and Spirit.' Something of the same sort, though held less frequently, might well be instituted for parents. Exchange of experience might be given freely. Some schools will doubtless suggest that this is a hopeless plan because each parent will be thinking only of his or her own child, but it will be for the wise teacher to knit together the different experiences, and to help parents to realize that life does not mean one child or one family alone, but a society to which each must contribute his best.

A club to which both staff and parents of children at the school can belong is a possibility, and might be carried out in many a private school. Probably at first only the most enthusiastic parents would join it, but it would thus represent the growing point of the school.

Meantime a series of lectures, given by outsiders carefully chosen by the school authorities, might be held on educational questions, one, two, or three times a term; lectures, or rather talks, simple and explanatory, on the aims and methods of the school, useful as a help to an all-round understanding of life, discussion being warmly invited on such subjects as co-education, co-operation, old-fashioned systems of reward and punishment compared with modern substitutes, and so on. Parents will not come, it may be urged, but in all probability a few would come, and by degrees more and more. Help from the school to the parents is hard uphill work, but it is being done in America, and where America leads we often follow with greater success. It is also being done in our own country. The Macmillan and Notting Hill (London) nursery schools bring in parents so that actual help is given in school needs. Private schools such as Maltman's Green (Buckinghamshire) and many others are trying to co-operate. In *Educational Experiments in England* there is an account of what was done some ten years ago.

I have tried to confine myself in this short article to the help that the school can give the home, but the need of help from the home to the school cannot be exaggerated. Too much emphasis cannot be laid on the importance of this particular kind of co-operation.

A Project in a Rural School

E. D. DAVIES

Headmaster, Alexandra Road Boys' Practising School, Aberystwyth, North Wales

EVERY teacher should aim at securing the *interest* of his pupils in the work in hand, for without interest co-operation is impossible, and without co-operation no real progress can be made. It is the duty, therefore, of the teacher so to frame his syllabus as to enlist this interest on the part of the pupils, and his method of approach should be such as to retain it throughout.

After four years in a big town school I took over the charge of a small country school (Capel Cynon Council School) among the hills of South Cardiganshire. You will appreciate at once the big difference between the interests of the two sets of children, and I had to adapt myself to the needs of the rural child.

Since all children are interested in the things that surround them and are, to a more or less degree, interested in what they hear from their elders, I hitched the work of the school to all social activities of the district that would be talked about in the homes and on the fields, so that the school education could be said to supplement the education of the hearth. The truth of the couplet of the Welsh bard, Cynan, was recognized :

Unig uchelgais llanc o'r wlad

Yw torri cwys fel cwys i dad

which, translated, means that the only ambition of a country lad's is to plough a furrow like his dad's.

To meet the situation I thought the best way would be to bring the school into direct contact with the soil—hence the Garden. Our project, therefore, was based on that most desirable and most interesting life activity of a rural community, and it can be claimed that it inculcated those habits and attitudes towards life which are the most valuable results of school life.

WORK IN GARDEN

One day the gardening lesson resolved itself into the digging of twenty yards of potatoes, the sorting of them, and the careful weighing of the results—the weighing-machine for medical inspection purposes came in useful : eighty-one lb. of marketable produce ; five lb. of diseased potatoes ; one and a half lb. of chats. Further data asked for : the pupils to find the number of rows and the length of row in their potato field.

ITS APPLICATION INSIDE SCHOOL

Arithmetic.—From above figures were worked the return per row in cwts. ; number of rows per acre ; return per acre in tons ; the price of each return according to market price ruling at the time (from weekly newspaper) ; percentage of diseased potatoes and chats ; weight of diseased potatoes per acre and calculation of cost of these, and so on. Then followed a balance sheet on the potato crop.

COTTAGER'S BALANCE SHEET (BASED ON LOCAL CUSTOM)—THREE ROWS OF 100 YARDS EACH

Expenditure

Day's labour for planting.

Part day's labour for cleaning.

Day's labour for digging.

Price of seed.

Payment for land and manure in form of harvest labour (1 day per 100 yards).

Value of artificial manure.

Receipts

Return—provided that the yield was similar to figures above.

The farmer's potato balance sheet proved less satisfactory, for the farmer's labour bill presented fresh difficulties.

This balance sheet was

Educators all over the world are interested in the problems of the rural school. Here we see how Mr. Davies solves some of them and prepares his pupils for country life

of value apart from the teaching of arithmetic, for it gave those who would spend their lives in farming an idea of bookkeeping.

Natural Science.—In digging up the diseased potatoes the problem of the disease naturally arose. Questions were asked which gave the children an introduction to the fungus world. This led directly to

Reading the pamphlets on the potato disease. These are issued gratis by the Board of Agriculture. They proved difficult, but the essentials were secured.

Here the opportunity arose to show where 'local lore' was incorrect and where scientific investigation was more dependable. The 'blast' on the potato was caused by foggy weather, according to local lore, whereas this weather condition presented only favourable conditions for the growth of the fungus.

Drawing of haulms, tubers and root of tubers.

History and Geography.—Raleigh's voyage and his introduction of the potato. Its struggle to exist—deadly nightshade story. Its ultimate victory as the king of vegetables. The introduction of the disease—the failure of the potato crop in Ireland and consequent famine followed by the Repeal of the Corn Laws.

Language.—Subjects for composition: The Culture of the Potato; Potato Digging Day; The Tragedy of a Diseased Potato (having emphasized man's indifference or ignorance). Then as an exercise for the imagination: The first Ocean Trip of the Potato. The climax of this particular series was reached in July of the following year when the Bordeaux mixture was sprayed on the leaves of the potato crop, to preserve them from the fungus.

THE GARDEN IN GENERAL

Arithmetic Tables.—We started off with square pole plots, found them inconvenient for working, then re-arranged into plots 15 yds. \times 2 yds.—still a square pole. Length measure—length of rows, distance between rows, and so on. Square measure—area of garden, plots, area under different crops, and so on. Cubic measure—cubic content of trenches dug. Weight measure—weighing of produce up to 1 cwt. Capacity—buying of pulse seed and peculiar method of weighing potatoes: a bushel = 56

lb. Time—tabulated the dates of sowing, cleaning, thinning and harvesting; calculated the period of growth of the vegetables. Calculations of price of products. Calculation of the weight of manures required for small plots and the cost of manures. Manures used: the phosphate, the nitrate, and lime—potash not available during war time; besides, the soil of our garden was rich in potash.

A very useful calculation was the comparison of the price of manures—the price per unit. Farmers throughout the country buy millions of pounds' worth of artificial manures annually, yet neglect to cast up the comparative cost of the different grades. A basic slag of 23 per cent citric soluble phosphate (Cumfelin) = so much per 1 per cent; another slag of 46 per cent citric soluble phosphate (Bilston) = so much per 1 per cent. Here the element of exactness was stressed—all contributory causes being considered. Other considerations affecting the cost would be: double the cartage from the station seven miles away, and double the labour in distribution. The foregoing meant the application of proportion and percentages.

Reading.—The *Country Readers* of Buchanan, on allied topics. The *Smallholder* and *The Farmer and Stockbreeder*. Board of Agriculture pamphlets: *Carrot Fly*, *Onion Fly*, *Onion Mildew*, *Potato Blight*. Useful for reference purposes: the three bound volumes of the Board of Agriculture (2s. 6d.).

Drawing.—We found a plentiful supply of objects for drawing—garden tools, vegetables, fruit, sprays of leaves, and so on. The longitudinal and cross section of a carrot was a great favourite, for it looked something like the object when done. The drawing of seedlings to illustrate germination at different stages. The drawing of the garden to scale—mapping out the beds and paths. The drawing of a bed or beds to scale, which afforded a change from the school furniture, and the opportunity of using different scales.

RURAL SCIENCE

Botany.—The ever-green lesson on germination was studied under natural conditions, not on wet flannel or over a glass jam-pot. Conditions governing germination. Habits of growth and food requirements studied at first hand. Parts of a plant and their uses. Parts of a



A Gardening Class

[Capel Cynon Council School, Cardiganshire]

flower and their uses.

Insect World.—From the carrot fly, onion fly, and cabbage butterfly, the great secret of insect life was ours. The experiment of keeping certain beds from the carrot fly, while allowing others to become a prey to its ravages was quite successful; more was learned from the failure of the crop than from its success. This experiment took us over to Havana and the Panama Canal, for by using the same principle of preventing the fly to breed, it became possible to rid Cuba of its malaria, and it was made possible for the American engineers to complete the Panama Canal.

Natural Enemies.—The attack of the green fly, owing to the failure of the ladybird to put in an appearance, gave the opportunity of drawing attention to the state of equilibrium maintained in nature: rabbit and weasel, swallow and fly, explanations of plagues of locusts.

Fungus.—The fungus pest on the potato and onion, and rust on wheat. The discovery of the host of the fungus that attacked wheat—the

Barbary bush—was a great event. The story of the destruction of these hosts in Denmark, and the consequent saving of the wheat in its final stages of growth was much enjoyed, while at the same time attention was drawn to the possibility of other hosts.

Methods of Propagation.—Propagation from seeding, budding, grafting, laying. The lesson of each plant's struggle for existence—the hopeless wilted condition of the newly transplanted onion plant giving place to the robust growth later was a source of enjoyment.

Grass Plots.—An interesting and useful experiment we made was the grass plot one, where the different clover and rye grasses had a plot each. We learnt to recognize them and found out how many years they would continue to appear.

Hygiene.—The planting of potatoes in the fields was noticed—the distance between the tubers being too short to secure best results. Experiments at various distances were undertaken, and the *one* plot where the tubers and rows were very close together proved a failure.

Reasons why? Lack of nourishment and being robbed of sunlight—results of overcrowding. The blanching of leeks and the process of thinning out both point the same moral. (Plenty of space was one of the cardinal rules of the garden.)

The lessons on food and food values, where vegetables and fruit were concerned, took on new life. The pea was looked upon with more respect when it was known that it was rich in protein and equalled beefsteak. The cabbage with its salts for purifying purposes was admired, and the lettuce with its vitamins praised.

History and Geography.—To trace the native haunts of all the plants—the pea from Persia, the potato from America, the turnip from across the North Sea, the carrot a native of our own land—and the consequent effects on the food of our own people would, I feel sure, if developed, prove of great service and interest to the rural and to the town child. The revolution in the winter food of the people of these islands after introduction of the turnip, is interesting. The history and geography of the manures employed would provide material for many lessons and introduce pupils to the world of industry.

Language.—With the introduction of these lessons, based on some activity on the part of the pupils, the development of their powers of expression was stimulated. There is no need to enlarge on this aspect.

Science.—No opportunity was neglected to get the pupils to adopt an attitude of respect towards all learning. Two lessons that were well received in this respect were: The story of the professor and the Canadian wheat crop; and the story of Pasteur and the grape in France. The actual mixture discovered by Pasteur, which saved the culture of the vine for the French farmer, was mixed and sprayed in the school garden. By the student of chemistry much more could be made of this mixture—we had no litmus paper.

Having expressed a wish for fine weather on the morrow, a child suddenly announced that 'the wind went *out* last night'—a phenomenon which appears during a spell of warm weather along the seaboard, known to sailors as 'land and sea breeze', and explained scientifically by 'slow absorbers are slow radiators'. There are possibilities to develop science to an enormous extent through the garden in the form of

experiments on soils, manures and plants; we could do but little in that way.

I might add that the foregoing does not nearly exhaust the possibilities of the method. The numerous experiments that are carried out in a school garden, to illustrate various truths, all help the pupils to adopt an attitude towards life which will make them lifelong searchers for truth.

On Wednesday and Thursday, 14th and 15th January, M. Jean Piaget, Professor in the University of Geneva and Director of the Institut J. J. Rousseau, will deliver in French two lectures on 'L'Influence du Facteur social dans le Developpement de l'Enfant'. The lectures have been arranged by the University of London, and will take place at London Day Training College, Southampton Row, W.C.1., at 5.30 p.m. on each day. Admission free, without ticket.

THE FEBRUARY ISSUE

THE NEW GENERATION

THE OMNIPOTENT BABE—II

NUTRITION AND THE CARE
OF CHILDREN

AN EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL
IN GERMANY

PIONEER EDUCATION IN
RHODESIA

First Steps to Freedom : A School Camera Club

GEO. H. HOLROYD

Supervisor of Revue Welfare Centre, and Assistant Master at Claremont Senior Boys' School, Blackpool

BEING an ardent believer in out-of-school activities, I have in my time run many societies at the various schools where I have worked. None of these was more successful than my first venture, a camera club. In these days of cheap cameras it will be found that a large number of homes possess cameras, and that it is quite possible to get a number of pupils interested in the society from the start. I have found that it is good for pupils to have some responsible task to perform in all school societies, so I created many officers.

In summer we spent much of our time out of doors on rambles and visits. We visited all the interesting places in the neighbourhood on Saturdays, and did a fair amount of work in the open at school. To help the funds of the club we took photographs of other pupils, and charged so as to make a profit. We kept a log-book, illustrated with the photographs taken, recording all our rambles and visits.

In winter we were quite as busy as in summer, for in October we had our exhibition of work done in the preceding year. We made fortnightly rambles, and a lecture by a prominent photographer was given once every month. Our own members gave papers also, and the trouble which the boys took was remarkable.

By coaxing the school caretaker we were allowed to convert a small cellar into a dark room and as we charged for the use of this room we made sufficient funds to equip it. The club undertook the developing and printing for both the staff and scholars, and made a profit at this.

The exhibition was held in certain classrooms and many interested parents gave prizes. We divided the exhibits into classes and were able to give two or three prizes in each class. After the exhibition, we auctioned the exhibits and so the prizes took very little from the funds.

To found a photographic library was not very difficult. We bought very few books. We were given many by interested parents, and the various manufacturers in the trade gave us

valuable help. To augment the funds we bought paper and chemicals in bulk and retailed them in small quantities.

The following were the officers elected by the club :—President (Headmaster) ; Vice-Presidents (interested parents and staff) ; and the following from the pupils : Chairman, Vice-Chairman, five Committee men, secretary, treasurer, librarian, dark room steward, exhibition secretary, exhibition steward, recorder (for logbook), leader (for rambles), and instrument steward. The last-mentioned officer was in charge of the club's enlarging apparatus, tripod, and other instruments purchased out of funds.

One of the best features of the work of the club was the interest it stimulated in other studies. After photographing certain historical remains there were few boys who did not take an interest in history. Similarly with nature study. We tried our hand at photographing various phases of nature, including a record of an opening bud. We placed a spray of apple in water and photographed it twice a day, obtaining remarkable results. In almost every subject of the curriculum we did some photography and earned the gratitude of the staff.

To the scholars the club was a source of pride, especially when we received requests from other members of the staff for photographs to illustrate their work. To this end we journeyed to many places of historical interest and made lantern-slides on our return for the history master. The society also provided a good hobby for pupils, for surely the making of beautiful photographs is a good craft. It showed them, also, that to enjoy a hobby careful thought must be given to it.

A school historical society is a useful stimulus, as are many other subject societies ; but a camera club is a combination of all of them. It provides a rambling club with an objective, gives boys and girls many interests, helps to create *esprit de corps* and, in brief, is a splendid institution in any school.

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

My younger boy is not nearly as good at lessons as his older brother. What should I do?

The first and most essential thing is to avoid all comparisons between the two brothers to the depreciation of the younger one. The most damaging experience which younger members of a family can have at school is to be continually reminded of the fact (which they already know too well) that they are not as far advanced as an older brother or sister. Excessive emphasis on this does not stimulate children to do better. It rather induces a feeling of despair, and prevents healthy self-confidence. Younger children are often secretly humble in their opinion of their own powers, and for proper development they need to realize that someone believes in them. The wisest course is to discover something which the younger ones can do well, praise them for this, and so build up their self-esteem.

It should be remembered that different children are differently endowed, and mature at different rates. A child who is slow at first may go further in the long run.

CHARLOTTE M. FLEMING
(Training Centre, Jordanhill, Glasgow)

What steps must be taken to deal with an interruption by a member of the class, which has distracted the rapt attention of the rest?

The disturber must be shown that however important his idea, or need of attention, he must consider first the group to which he belongs. But, you may say, will not this repression hinder the development of his personality? In class teaching, the question must often arise, and the prominent member, probably the possessor of more originality than the rest, must be made to control his eagerness for the sake of the group. Work on individual lines allows each child to bring his own ideas to bear upon the work on which he is engaged. He is soon absorbed in his own problems and will neither wish to disturb, nor allow any disturbance from the rest. He becomes accustomed to an atmosphere of concentration in the room which he will not abuse. He soon learns to come quietly up to the teacher and state his problem in an undertone, which will not break the silence he has learnt to enjoy.

Should a child be hurried?

If a child is to produce his best work, he must be allowed to progress at his own rate of speed; any attempt therefore to hurry a child over a task on which he is engaged is greatly to be deprecated.

Complete concentration on and absorption in his task with all the pride of achievement and self-expression which this entails, can only be possible to a child unhampered by considerations of time. Only in this way will his rate of progress develop. The question of time limit will eventually take care of itself, without entailing the smallest sacrifice of the quality of production.

Which do you consider the best method of dealing with mistakes and corrections in school work?

Little good and often much harm is done by the teacher who strews the exercises of his pupils with a large number of thick red lines and scribbled comments. The former are seldom understood, the latter hardly ever looked at, and the teacher, instead of being a helper, becomes an iconoclast. No less injurious is the practice of returning work again and again until it reaches the requisite standard. A far more satisfactory method is to make a short résumé at the end of the exercise trying to strike at the root of the child's difficulty, offering a certain amount of advice, and endeavouring to embrace as many of the mistakes as possible in a few comprehensive questions.

J. HOWARD EVANS
(Headmaster, Port Regis, Broadstairs, Kent)

My little girl is clever, and she is beginning to despise other children. Does this matter?

It is not good for a child to find herself in a group in which she is always able to learn more quickly than her companions. A bright pupil in a large class is apt to be bored by hearing work repeated which she already knows. This boredom may rapidly develop into irritation with the slowness of other people, and may lead to distaste for school, restlessness in class, or, what is perhaps more serious, to a habit of day-dreaming and of working below capacity.

The cure is often found in an enlarged curriculum and the adoption of individual methods of promotion which will permit the child to advance at her own rate. Steps should be taken to ensure that to the interest in books is added a widening of the personality in other directions. The clever child should be encouraged to sew, to draw, to work in a house or a garden, to play with other children, to teach younger ones. In these more social directions she may not be unhealthily superior to her contemporaries. By acquiring proficiency along these lines she will become more healthily adjusted to life.

CHARLOTTE M. FLEMING

International Notes

Dr. C. H. Hincks of the Canadian Committee of the Mental Hygiene Association, has been appointed head of the American National Committee of the Mental Hygiene Association. Mr. Clifford Beers has been appointed Secretary to the new international organization of the Mental Hygiene Association.



The School Attendance Bill at present before the British House of Commons is a third edition. In the form in which it was introduced it consisted of two main clauses :

- (1) All children shall attend school as from 1st April 1931 until the age of 15.
- (2) Maintenance allowances shall be paid by local education authorities according to statements of income by parents, 5s. per week to be allowed for each child aged 14 of parents whose income is within prescribed limits.

In the second reading in the House of Commons, the opposition proceeded from two angles. There was the group headed by Lord Eustace Percy, who objected to the raising of the school age by compulsion, and those, of whom the most effective speaker was Mr. John Buchan, who are in favour in principle of the raising of the school age, but believe that having regard to the present economic condition of the country, the age should not be raised for at least five years.

In the committee stage it was apparent that opposition to the appointed day would come from the Liberals as well as from the Conservatives, and ultimately the Government conceded to the Liberal demands and agreed to make the date for raising the school age September 1932. (This was the date suggested by the Association of Education Committees at their Conference in June 1929.)

The Government were also obliged to accept a compromise upon the question of the right of an education authority to inquire into and verify the statement of income of a claimant for a maintenance allowance ; and in this matter they have at last been able to control their left wing, who fought fiercely to secure allowances for all children on reaching the age of 14. and, failing that, against any ' inquisition ' into means.

It appears as if the Bill in its amended form meets the views of the largest body of authoritative educational opinion in the country. The postponing of the date, whatever may be said against it from the point of view of those who have pressed the importance of the measure as a partial relief to the burden of unemployment, is generally approved, and the case against granting maintenance allowances without scrutiny of claims is undoubtedly a strong one.



The Nursery School Association of Great Britain,

which now numbers over seven hundred individual members, four branches and between thirty and forty groups, held a one-day Conference on 21st November 1930 in London, to which eighty-three local education authorities, the Association of Education Committees, the National Union of Teachers, the National Council for Maternity and Child Welfare, the Educational Institute for Scotland, the Training College Association, and many other organizations, sent representatives. Guests from the United States, India and Australia also were present. Over four hundred and fifty people attended the Conference, which was characterized by close attention to the speeches and lively discussion. The chairman was Miss Winifred Mercier, Principal of Whitelands Teachers' Training College, London.

The morning session was opened by Mr. Morgan Jones, M.P., Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education. He was followed by Miss Lillian de Lissa, Chairman of the Nursery School Association, whose paper on the Essentials of Nursery School Education put before the Conference the considered view of the Association regarding : (1) the urgent need for more nursery schools ; (2) the crucial importance of making provision for adequate and suitably qualified staffing as well as the right kind of buildings and equipment ; (3) the problems inherent in the provision of nursery school care and education in the form of nursery classes. The resolution of the day was as follows :—' That this Conference urges Local Education authorities to respond to the strong appeal of the Minister of Health and the President of the Board of Education to use the powers which all possess for the establishment of nursery schools in their districts.' It was passed with one dissentient vote.

The guest of honour at the luncheon was Miss Ishbel MacDonald, whose presence and speech were much appreciated.

The afternoon session was opened by Miss Susan Lawrence, M.P., Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Health. Papers were read by Dr. Ralph H. Crowley, Senior Medical Officer of the Board of Education, on the ' Needs of the Pre-School Child ', and by Dr. J. A. Hadfield on ' The Mental Health of the Pre-School Child '.



A film, depicting the daily life of the Odenwaldschule in Germany, will be available for presentation in Great Britain during 1931, by kindness of the directors. The film shows the various activities of this pioneer school community, and is of great interest. A former member of the staff of the school is prepared to give a short address during the showing of the film. Those interested in arranging a presentation should apply for particulars to Dr. M. Ekenberg, c/o N.E.F. (English Section), 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

The Institute of International Research (2 West 45th Street, New York City), of which Dr. Stephen P. Duggan is Director, has hitherto maintained at both the Paris and London offices, a permanent Associate Director, and sent out each year a professor on sabbatical leave as Annual Director. This policy has now been abandoned. Dr. Horatio S. Krans, who has been Associate Director of the Paris office (173 Boulevard Saint-Germain), since its establishment during the war, has been made permanent Director at Paris. Mr. Willard Connely, formerly instructor in English at Harvard, has been appointed Director at London (1 Gordon Square, W.C.1), for the two years beginning 1st September 1930. From the Institute's Eleventh Annual Report we learn that during 1929-30 one hundred Americans were exchange students in European countries as follows: Austria, 7; Czechoslovakia, 7; France, 20; Germany, 49; Hungary, 3; Italy, 4; Switzerland, 10. Foreign exchange students in the United States were: Austrians, 11; Czechoslovakians, 9; French, 13; Germans, 48; Hungarians, 11; Italians, 4; Russians, 5; Swiss, 13; one hundred and twenty-two in all.

In accordance with action taken at the business session of the Third Conference of Nursery School Workers, U.S.A., held in October 1929, the National Committee on Nursery Schools automatically became the Executive Committee of the National Association for Nursery Education on 1st September 1930.

The Committee was authorized to draw up a constitution and bye-laws, and to begin to enrol members. A simple set of bye-laws and a constitution are now in use as a working basis, but final action on acceptance of these has been deferred to a future date. Active membership, which is confined to persons trained or engaged in nursery education is \$2.00 per annum; associate membership (parents and others interested), \$1.00 per annum; and organization membership (education, public health or social), \$10.00 per annum. In addition, there is a subscription of \$2.00 per annum to *Childhood Education*, the official journal of the National Association for Nursery Education. This is published by the Association for Childhood Education with the co-operation of the Association for Nursery Education and the National Council of Primary Education. Particulars may be obtained from Mrs. Rose H. Alschuler, Secretary, 795 Lincoln Avenue, Winnetka, Ill., U.S.A.

Information concerning the 16th International Course in the Theory and Practice of the Montessori Method, which will be held in Rome from the end of January until the end of July 1931, may be obtained from the International Montessori Training Course, Via Monte Zebio 35, Rome. The course, which will be given in Italian, and translated, will cover theory

and practice, observation and individual work. An examination for a diploma will be held at the end.

The Scottish Council for Research in Education (47 Moray Place, Edinburgh), has issued its 2nd Annual Report (1929-30). The Research Council consists of thirty-two members nominated by the following: Association of Education Authorities, Educational Institute of Scotland, Association of Directors of Education, National Committee for the Training of Teachers, Training Centres and Colleges (Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh, Glasgow), Universities of Scotland, Scottish Branch of the British Psychological Society, Association of School Medical Officers of Scotland. The general aim is to encourage and recognise research work in education in Scotland. The special aims are: (1) to initiate and control special investigations; (2) to receive suggestions for research; (3) to allocate problems to suitable investigators; (4) wholly or partly to finance approved investigations; (5) to authorize the publication of results and recommendations, and to bear the cost (wholly or partly) of such publication.

The Youth Hostels Association of Great Britain, which was formed in 1929 with Professor G. M. Trevelyan, O.M., as chairman, is desirous of hearing from persons interested in their scheme for a nationwide effort to establish an adequate system of hostels. Those wishing to help are asked to write to the Hon. Sec., Mr. E. St. John Catchpool, 18 Bridge Road, Welwyn Garden City, Hertfordshire.

A step which certain progressive educators in Italy have been dreading for the past two years has recently taken place. The publication of an entire new series of textbooks to be used throughout all the elementary schools in the country is the latest method of the Fascist government to convert its youth. All eight volumes are thoroughly permeated with the spirit of Fascism. They are skilfully written and handsomely illustrated. The Fascist emblem is inside and outside the books, the boys are dressed as *balillas* (national boy scouts) and the girls as *piccole Italiane*. They are taught to delight in patriotic ceremonies, to salute the flag, to be proud of the swift marching troops and martial Fascists. Mussolini is the hero throughout. The books for the first two grades describe the adventures of two young children and their longings for their eighth birthday when they will be allowed to join the Fascist children's organizations. Their father reminds them, among other things, of the fact that Italy won the war with the victory of the battle of Vittorio Veneto. The fourth year reading book is filled with stories of Fascist heroes and martyrs as well as a history of the Fascist movement. Mussolini's life, carefully censored, is given at some length.

Book Reviews

The Education of Children. By Alfred Adler.
Translated by Eleanore and Friedrich Jensen, M.D.
George Allen and Unwin, London, 12s. 6d.;
Greenberg, New York, \$3.50.

Teachers or parents may belong to any or none of the schools of psychology; but everyone must find something of value in this book. Those who have extensive experience of children will question the adequacy of the simple way in which Professor Adler classifies abnormal children into three classes, to explain all cases; but nevertheless, they will find here many practical and constructive ideas.

In the first chapter, we are given a résumé of Adlerian psychology under the usual name of Individual Psychology (spelt with capitals). We are familiar with the main tenets of this, which are that individuals set before themselves a goal of superiority, which they strive to reach by fair means if possible, and by foul if not. Further, that the goal set may be a social and good one, or an anti-social, and so mistaken, one. If a person fails to reach that goal by means of objective accomplishment, in action, he then has two other means: psychic achievement, or fantasy; or indirect compensation—symbolic actions and the like.

Thus far we are concerned with general principles. In children, trouble arises primarily out of dissatisfaction, engendered either because they are too much cared for, and so restricted in their activities and achievements; or because they feel themselves neglected and not loved; or because they are physically delicate. These classes, naturally, often overlap in any particular child. It would take too long to describe the various factors which make a child behave 'badly': there are matters of position in the family; of lack of knowledge, owing to facts being kept from them; and all the many things which may make a child feel that he is not having his fair share of the world, that he is small and inadequate.

School is described as having to be a medium between home life and 'reality'. Only too often, home life is far too much sheltered from the hard facts of life, so that on entering school, the child feels itself lost and therefore inferior. Adler states that an experienced teacher can pick out the parents' mistakes the moment he sees the new arrival, and the way it behaves. The aim of education is to direct the superiority-striving into the right channels for the individual; and the keynote of procedure is to encourage, not to 'lessen': every one of us must have felt the wickedness and pain of being 'encouraged' by being made to feel small or wicked, either in our own eyes or in those of our fellows.

The last three chapters are devoted to adolescence and sex education; to pedagogical mistakes; and, last but by no means least, to the education of parents.

Education and Leisure. Edited by S. E. Lang.
Addresses delivered at the Conference on Education held in Victoria and Vancouver, Canada. J. M. Dent & Sons, London and Toronto. 12s. 6d.

This volume on the Conference on Education in Canada in 1929 contains reports on the work done and the twenty-six addresses delivered; the first part of the volume gives a short but interesting account of the work done at the Conference, which was attended by 30,000 people at Victoria and Vancouver. The work of the Conference was the study of the relation of Education and Leisure, and in view of the gradual decrease in the fraction of man's time which is given to work, it is important for all of us to know what is the best preparation for the right use of the fraction of our lives which may be devoted to leisure. Education for life's work has come more and more under government aid and guidance, and it would seem desirable that education for life's leisure should be more and more aided by government grants and helped by Education Authorities so that it may be provided in greater variety and be suitable for all citizens.

The opening address by Sir Rabindranath Tagore is a fine introduction to the volume and deals with the Philosophy of Leisure; the twenty-six addresses naturally vary very considerably, but many of them give an interesting account of different branches of non-vocational study. Perhaps those on literature and music are the most interesting—that of Sir Archibald Strong on Literature and Leisure is of special interest. The importance of the study of music and drama is impressed upon us in two good papers. The work to be done by the cinema and radio is fully dealt with, and it is interesting to find the Secretary to the Board of Education promising us that in England the Board will give loyal and earnest co-operation in any measures taken for careful research and experiment into the uses and abuses of the cinema for educational purposes. The addresses on organized play and recreation are well worth keeping for future reference and guidance in many ways; while those on health and its association with games and play are worthy of careful study. The volume contains many other valuable addresses, and is well worth having as a record of what can be done in education for leisure, not only by the young but also by the old.

The Art of Study. By T. H. Pear. Kegan Paul, London. 3s. 6d.

This little book of 120 pages began as broadcast talks to adolescents on 'How to Concentrate' and had an intermediate stage as lectures on 'Effective Methods of Study', addressed to freshers at Manchester University. It is for the most part deliberately conversational in form and the more effective thereby for its practical purpose. The chapter headings are unashamedly utilitarian—'How to Listen'; 'How to Concentrate' (full of practical 'tips'); 'How to Form Habits of Study'; 'Can the Memory be Trained?' and so forth. It has the effect of easy, wise, attractive talk by a man of the educational world who knows 'what's what' and is anxious to help youngsters to save their time and acquire useful habits, as they might in any game of skill. Professor

Pear has no hesitation in dismissing as a hoary legend the idea that a young student's own enjoyment of the delightful things in art and literature will be destroyed if some older person points the way to them and tells us why he likes them. He advises the beginner always to consult the expert if he can and to save time through profiting by the experience of others. He is all for intelligent study on a definite plan as against 'foolish insistence on excessive "learning by experience"'. Mere industriousness or hard studying is not enough: 'you must know where and when to put in hard work and to use your energy only where it will tell'.

For intelligent young students, especially those just leaving school and anxious to continue learning on their own account, the book should be of real use. It does not so much hold out study as a part of worldly wisdom or an issue of moral duty, but rather presents it as 'one of the very fine arts' and therefore as a source of keen pleasure. 'You will work more efficiently of course. But more; you will increase your enjoyment.' (p. 3.)

Educational Policy in Soviet Russia. By N. Hans and S. Hessen. P. S. King and Son, Ltd., Gt. Smith Street, London. 7s. 6d.

Nowhere in the world does the time element count so much as in writing about Russia. Things seen or experienced a year ago are ancient history, so swiftly do changes and developments come. This is one of the chief defects in *Educational Policy in Soviet Russia*. The statistics are in most cases at least three years old, in many older. Another defect is that although the authors *have* lived in Russia they no longer do live there. Their information and judgments are based on official documents and other people's reports, unfortunately none of them very recent. Added to this they admit their bias. They obviously hate the Soviets and feel that the Kerensky regime would have developed Russia on far more promising lines. This does not help the reader to gain a fair picture of what the Soviets are doing in the educational field. False impressions are often given through misinterpretation of statistics. Very little credit is given the Soviets for their actual accomplishments which, say the authors, are the result of a normal evolution of the Russian school rather than of the educational policy of the Soviet government. Negative elements and failures however

are entirely due to communist policy! The great development of free pre-school education totally unknown to Czarist Russia is scarcely mentioned, while the amazing advance in the 'liquidation' of illiteracy is only grudgingly admitted.

The actual historical data in the development of education in Russia is extremely interesting and the account of the change from the early idealism of the 1917-1918 educational leaders to the present-day utilitarianism helps one to understand the close link between the whole network of educational institutions and the political regime. There are many tables of official statistics and a good bibliography which should prove valuable to the student of educational progress.

Das Werdende Zeitalter for October 1930. Verlag Das Werdende Zeitalter, Dresden, N.6, Kasernen-strasse 20/II.

This issue is devoted to education in Soviet Russia. Beyond an introductory article by the editor, Elizabeth Rotten, and one other which may have been written by an outsider, the contributors are all Russians and, I should judge, communists living in Russia. Dr. Rotten deplors dictatorships but feels that the hope of Bolshevism is in its educational programme and in its deeper understanding of children. The comparative number of children in school before and after the Revolution is a gigantic step forward, she feels. She stresses the hope that the Quaker ideal of international brotherhood will be put into practice in time to avert revolution in other countries. The other articles give very interesting pictures of the many-sided educational programme in Russia. The pre-school movement, workers' education, the pioneer movement, the five-year-plan as actually applied to education, and what education will be like in the ideal socialist community, are the subjects of these various specialists. They are frank expositions of the educational system seen through Soviet eyes. The lack of criticism and the enthusiasm must be taken into account. No Russian on the inside can criticize anything in the regime to outsiders. We must get our criticism from more impartial observers. If we put these articles side by side with Professor Hans' and Professor Hessen's book we get a pretty fair picture of what the Soviets are doing and what they are not doing in the field of education.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

IN pursuance of our editorial policy of making the child the centre of education, we discuss month by month the basic principles of all-round growth and development. In all realms of education there are conflicting and confused views, but concentration and research are establishing certain basic principles.

This month we give prominence to the feeding of children. Though this question is controversial, since necessarily there are differences in national dietetic habits, climatic conditions and individual needs, sufficient general agreement exists among experts on the food requirements of children to make an examination of it worth while. It is interesting to find, for instance, complete agreement on essentials of diet between Professor McCollum of Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, and Professor Cowell of the University of London. Both emphasize the absolute necessity of right feeding from the day of birth. Though children who go to boarding school pasty, thin, listless and 'nervy', often improve and put on weight in a short time as a result of a properly balanced and really nourishing diet, regular hours, sufficiency of sleep and fresh air, the fundamental harm done by starving the tissues through improper feeding in babyhood and young childhood, can never be completely eradicated. It is a tragedy that, all over the world, parents are still ignorant in the matter of infants' diet, and lack means to provide the necessary elements for growth.

It is, too, lamentable that, at our present stage of evolution, we English as a nation have not realized the right of children to conditions that shall ensure maximum growth and development, that we still spend so much on remedies for, so little on prevention of, ill-health and

mal-development. The findings in dietetics are still too little popularized in England: they are not known in the national domestic economy and kitchens. Our more practical friends across the Atlantic have done better in this respect; men and women select their meals more carefully than do we, and children's food is more thoughtfully planned. Trained dieticians are employed in restaurants, in schools and other institutions. But there is a danger in being too scientific, a danger which is seen in America, where food theories are spread and accepted wholesale, of the fad of the moment being too readily seized upon; and there is also the grave danger of standardization. Individuals cannot be standardized; each is unique and different from all others.

It is encouraging to note that an advisory committee was appointed in England in January to advise the Minister of Health on the practical application of modern advances in the knowledge of nutrition.

To show the necessity of variety in children's diet, an experiment was begun four years ago by Dr. Clara Davies, of Chicago. She adopted sixteen homeless children, as early as possible after birth, and in the four years every particle of food given to them has been controlled and careful records have been kept. At every meal, before each child is put a tray on which are some sixteen different articles of food—cereals, milk, fruit, bread, vegetables, cooked meat, cooked fish, raw meat, eggs, and so forth—all carefully prepared and served in small quantities. Great care has been taken that no adult suggestion should be made to the children: they are absolutely free to select from the food that which they desire to eat. They are also free to ask for more of any kind, and may eat as much as they wish.

Already most interesting results have been obtained, though it is too early to generalize. It would seem that a child instinctively selects the material it requires for growth. For instance, a child with rickets will of its own accord select those articles of diet required to balance the deficiency that induces its physical condition; the children also choose instinctively different diets in hot weather from those they choose in cold. There is great variation between child and child both in the food selected and in the quantities eaten. In the four years no child has ever been sick.

It is known to doctors everywhere that children will instinctively try to obtain an essential lacking in their diet; a child needing calcium, for instance, will pick plaster from walls and eat it for no reason that it can name; it is simply trying to satisfy bodily craving for an essential. Dr. Davies' experiment was undertaken in the interests of scientific research, but the principle can and should be carried out in home and school by giving variety of and choice in food. Children should have the freedom to select the materials they need for physical growth just as under the new education they are given freedom to select materials for mental and spiritual development. But we emphasize the qualification '*within a selected environment*'. On the trays presented to the children in the Chicago experiment, there are no articles of food that would be harmful.

The balance of opinion among experts is in favour of milk for children. Dr. Corry Mann's research, mentioned by Professor Cowell, shows the great importance of this food. (The average gain in weight and height in one year was 6.98 lb. and 2.63 ins. respectively for the boys receiving an extra pint of milk a day, compared with 3.85 lb. and 1.84 ins. for those receiving only ordinary diet. A distinct increase in general fitness and good spirits was also noted.) But the milk must be clean. (There is great need in England for a campaign against impure and dirty milk.) There is also unanimity on the necessity of an adequate supply of vitamins in children's diet. As Professor Cowell points out, milk is deficient in the fat-soluble Vitamin A during the winter months in England; therefore it is safe to give cod liver oil in some palatable form. It is essential that tomato juice,

orange juice or, as a cheaper substitute, carrot juice, as well as vegetables and salads, should be a part of every child's daily diet. But these necessary raw foods are difficult and costly to obtain in England on account of their scarcity and the lack of care and intelligence in the growing and marketing of them.

A *questionnaire* sent a few years ago to twelve large typical and representative public schools for boys and four for girls, showed that in only two of the sixteen schools was anything like an adequate quantity of fresh fruit given; that is, in over eighty per cent the diet was deficient in vitamins. The fact that in some not expensive schools an adequate quantity of fruit is given, shows that it should be possible for many more to do so.

Variety in diet is, however, not enough. Food should look appetizing and be palatable. Diet in English boarding schools usually leaves much to be desired, and parents should insist on seeing the school menus. It is, for instance, monotonous and unappetizing to have a menu that recurs on specific days of the week. Though there has been an improvement in school food during the last few years, it is still possible to find, in public schools where the house system exists, children who are insufficiently fed and have to rely on the tuck-shop to supply part of their food requirements. English diet for children is inclined to include too much starch, which leads to acidosis. Studies are being made of the emotional disturbances of children suffering from excess of acid, for there is much interaction between the physical, mental and emotional in children.

Parents and teachers are invited to send diet problems for discussion in the monthly questions page of the *New Era*.

Though in England we have still much to learn about diet, there is no country in the world where children have more open-air life, more healthful exercise, and games, or where they are less exposed to an over-heated atmosphere indoors. The lack of sunlight in many parts of England gives added value to artificial sunlight, the beneficial effects of which are becoming increasingly apparent in preventive and remedial treatment. Vita-glass, too, in places not overhung by a pall of smoke, is a boon to all who have to be much indoors.

The New Generation— and the Old

CEDAR PAUL

FOR the modest sum of twenty shillings, all who write in the *New Era* and all who read it can get a volume entitled *The New Generation, the Intimate Problems of Modern Parents and Children*, edited by V. F. Calverton and Samuel D. Schmalhausen, with an introduction by Bertrand Russell, published by Messrs. George Allen and Unwin. A symposium comprising more than seven hundred large octavo pages, it will provide one part of those to whom it is dedicated ('the parents and children of the newer generation') with materials for thought and study lasting six months or more. It contains over thirty essays, and each of them is worth a week's consideration. Every educationist who aspires to be something better than a routinist, something more inspired than a cud-chewer, should read it—not to agree with it, for the contributors do not agree among themselves; not to dissent from it, for mere dissent can be as sterile as mere conformity: but to think about it.

In the essay on *Parenthood—the Basis of Social Structure*, Bronislaw Malinowski writes: 'It is the function of science to control the future on the basis of a correct analysis of the past and present; knowledge gives foresight in the light of experience. In discussing the future of parenthood and the family, the sociologist will do well to reflect on what these institutions are, how they develop, and how they are related to human nature. Above all how they work and how they have worked in the various societies of the past and present.' *How they work and how they have worked*. That is the keynote of the 'functional' school of anthropology, whereof Malinowski is one of the chief exponents. In his essay, which is the longest in the book, he comes to somewhat conservative conclusions. 'The institutions of marriage and the family are indispensable, and should be saved at all costs in the present wrecking of so many things old and valuable. But, like all really conserva-

tive tendencies, the functional view advocates intelligent reform wherever this is necessary. If marriage and the family are in need of much greater tolerance in matters of sex and of parental authority, these reforms ought to be formulated, studied, and tested, in the light of the relevant sociological laws and not in a mere haphazard, piecemeal fashion.'

Agreed, but what will the functional school of anthropology do about it if, in the actual working of modern human society the family decays, as John B. Watson, the behaviourist, contends that it is decaying, in his essay *After the Family—What*; and as Eden Paul contends it is decaying in his little volume *Chronos or the Future of the Family*? Must not the home, rather than the family or the kinship, become the primary educational unit of to-morrow? Here is something for parents and educationists to ponder for more than a week or two, and many of the contributions to *The New Generation* throw light upon it.

The book is divided into five parts: Parents *versus* Children; the Child *versus* Civilisation; the Family Romance; Potentialities of the Child; Education and Enlightenment. I hope it is not national prejudice which makes me feel that the British contributions to this joint book are outstanding. Russell's *Introduction*; Langdon-Davies on *Education, Savage and Civilised*; Joad on *Reverence*; Havelock Ellis on *Perversion in Childhood and Adolescence*; and Briffault, *Taboos on Human Nature*, for instance. But this is not to detract from the excellence of the American contributions. The editors write: Calverton on *The Illegitimate Child*; and Schmalhausen on *Family Life, a Study in Pathology*. (The poor old family, it gets hard knocks, Malinowski notwithstanding!) 'Family life, as I feel and perceive it, is about the very best raw material which the psychopathologist has at his disposal for studying intimately every kind of idiocy and imbecility, every

phase of insanity.' (Langdon-Davies says much the same of a less ancient but still time-honoured institution—the school !)

A good many German names appear among the contributors : Wittels, Stekel, Glueck, &c. These three contribute psychoanalytical papers on *Sadistic Tendencies in Parents*, on *Frigidity in Mothers*, and on *The Œdipus Complex*, respectively. But there are no French names, no Italian, no Spanish. Why are the 'Latin' sources not drawn upon ; or have these sources run dry ? Has Switzerland, which produced such great educationists in old days, dropped behind in these matters ? Surely it must produce new ideas, as well as scenery and hotels, tinned milk and chocolate ? One would have liked an article by Charles Baudouin, of the Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute, a Frenchman domiciled in Switzerland ; one by Pfister, Ferrière, Franziska Baumgarten But perhaps the book is big enough.

Women, at any rate, are given a fair show among the contributors. Margaret Mead writes on *Adolescence in Primitive and Modern Society*, Elizabeth Goldsmith on *Emotional Problems in Children* ; Florence Cane on *The Creative Impulse in Children* ; Sidonie Gruenberg on *New Parents for Old* ; Phyllis Blanchard on *Obscenity in Children* ; and Lorine Pruette contributes a most amusing and instructive article on *The Flapper*. Is this writer an American woman of French extraction ? She has the French liveliness. In her article I trace almost to its fountain-head an anecdote which has been going the rounds : ' In one of Ludwig Lewisohn's recent books the girl rises from the arms of her lover to exclaim in appropriately tragic tones : " Is that all ? " ' She had heard so much in her smart radical group about the desirability of losing what was formerly spoken of as woman's chiefest treasure, and at the last she felt a little sold.' By-the-way, I do not quote the above without being aware that educationists of the old school may regard the introduction of such

matters as, to say the least, flippant. The actual fact is that most of the contributions, though they deal with grave topics, are brightly written, and eminently readable.

But if women get a fair showing in *The New Generation*, the writers are mostly men, and the virile outlook predominates. Perhaps that is still inevitable. Maybe, through nature's handicap, it will always be so. Time will show. Meanwhile thoughtful women must agree that there may be good reason for asking the questions which Schmalhausen asks in the before-mentioned article on *Family Life*. ' How have women managed to be the bearers of children for a hundred thousand years or more, and to have remained so innocently ignorant of the nature of motherhood ? How have women found it possible throughout the ages to sanction and to participate in every kind of misunderstanding and enmity and cruelty towards children, their own passionately begotten and tenderly suckled children ? Why have not women, after so long an experience, worked out better equations between themselves and their husbands and lovers and children ? '

In part, perhaps, we can ' blame it on the men ? ' Anyhow, as Schmalhausen remarks in a footnote, the malicious male reader will be delighted with an ancient Chinese poem that goeth thuswise :

A clever man builds a city,
A clever woman lays one low ;
With all her qualifications, that clever woman
Is but an ill-omened bird.
A woman with a long tongue
Is a flight of steps leading to calamity ;
For disorder does not come from heaven,
But is brought about by women.
Among those who cannot be trained or taught
Are women and eunuchs.

Still, if women are foolish, we can always comfort ourselves with the reflection that ' the Lord made them foolish to match the men '.

Children and their Food

E. V. McCOLLUM

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SINCE growth, freedom from digestive disturbances and protection against certain deficiency diseases depend upon the child's food it is obvious that its selection and preparation cannot be left to chance. The child's comfort and his foundation for life depend on the manner in which he is fed. This has long been recognized, for it was the general experience, formerly, that infants who had lost their mothers and had to be artificially fed, almost always died. No class has profited more from the results of modern nutrition studies than has the infant population. This is fortunate, for physical perfection during the period of growth and development is the greatest safeguard for a high standard of health in the adult population. The application of scientific principles to infant feeding is, therefore, the most important phase of the human nutrition problem.

The statement has been made by eminent medical authorities that a breast-fed child has ten times the chance of a child who is entirely bottle-fed. Yet it is now possible with the best management to rear an infant on the bottle with but a few days of breast-feeding, and succeed apparently as well as with breast-feeding. There are, to be sure, many more hazards, and the infant is subject to dangers which it would avoid if breast-fed. Knowledge of foods which enable us to accomplish such a result are, however, a very great achievement.

The first outstanding advance in infant feeding was the recognition of the danger of dirty milk. Studies of tuberculosis in cattle have shown the widespread incidence of infection. Thirty years ago most physicians would have recommended that a family cow carefully managed was a safer source of milk for a bottle-fed infant than ordinary herd milk. The shock of witnessing an autopsy of such a cow, far advanced in tuberculosis, resulted in the well-known activity of Mr. Straus in New York,

which led to a great reform in handling milk for babies in that city and subsequently in other cities.

Many people in middle life who were brought up on farms remember how shamelessly indifferent were ordinary self-respecting farmers towards milk production thirty years ago and more. The cows were allowed to become filthy and milk could not be drawn without contaminating it with excreta. No attempt was made on the great majority of farms to cleanse the hands of the milkers or the cow's udders. Washing of utensils was most perfunctory and none were sterilized. A cloth strainer was the rule and was merely rinsed and hung to dry where flies had access to it and took full advantage of their opportunity. Add to these conditions the absence of facilities for proper refrigeration of milk and it is no wonder that infants became ill with intestinal troubles during hot weather. The abundance of flies and their ready access to dwellings and to pails employed for washing soiled baby clothing, served to spread disease from home to home in cities where only outside toilet facilities were available. These hygienic aspects of the food problem of the infant stand out clearly in their solution, as one of the great achievements in infant nutrition.

Food research and research on the nutritive needs of the body have, however, resulted in outstanding progress in our knowledge of the care of children. From the standpoint of human welfare generally it is doubtful whether any other discoveries have been made in the most progressive century in the world's history, which equal those in the field of nutrition. They can be given only brief consideration here.

Through the studies of Marine and others it became known that simple goitre, which is endemic over great areas of the United States and of other countries, results from a deficiency of iodine in the soil and water and the vegeta-

tion grown in these areas. Kimball has observed mothers and children in the Great Lakes region for many years and has found that the provision of the proper amount of iodine is successful in preventing the further progress of the disease in children and to a certain extent serves to relieve it. He believes, however, that infants born to mothers whose thyroids are injured and who do not receive enough iodine during the pre-natal life of the child, are handicapped through injury to the thyroid gland and are predisposed to goitre. The provision of sufficient iodine does not entirely suffice to prevent thyroid enlargement in such children. He emphasizes that it is very important to keep the thyroid gland of the mother saturated with iodine during pregnancy in order that the child may be born with a normal gland. This knowledge has been so widely disseminated in goitrous regions, that attention is being paid to the advice pretty generally. We may confidently look forward to the alleviation of this serious handicap to children in the future. The results thus far attained have been very gratifying; the work has long since passed the experimental stage and is a part of our body of established knowledge of preventive medicine.

Nothing that has been discovered in the field of nutrition has done more to safeguard the health of babies and children than the pasteurization of the milk supply. Previous to the discovery of Pasteur that the heating of milk to the proper temperature for a certain time would destroy all disease-producing bacteria, infants and children who were fed on cow's milk were in great danger of developing bovine tuberculosis and intestinal infections. The extensive adoption of this method of safeguarding the milk of cities was followed by the general practice among physicians of advising the boiling of milk given to infants. This resulted in the development of a considerable number of cases of infantile scurvy previous to about 1917. Holst and Frohlich in Sweden had discovered in 1912 that deprivation of all fresh raw food produced experimental scurvy in guinea pigs. During the next five years experimental studies on animals in many laboratories established the fact that heated milk had lost its antiscorbutic properties. The outcome of these studies was the appreciation of the necessity of safeguarding

the health of infants and young children by giving them daily a suitable amount of some fresh, unheated fruit juice. Orange juice is most widely used for the purpose of supplying the antiscorbutic principle, known as Vitamin C. This provides the one substance which is destroyed in the pasteurization or boiling of milk, and makes it safe to give infants and children heated milk.

It was later shown that in the modern process of canning fruits and vegetables the air is effectively expelled early in the canning process and that this tends to prevent the destruction of Vitamin C, which destruction is all but complete in ordinary cooking processes. The work of Dr. Harriet Chick has been most effective in giving us exact knowledge of the antiscorbutic values of common foods treated in different ways. No extensive study has yet been made of the antiscorbutic value of different canned fruits and vegetables, which have received only the ordinary routine treatment of the commercial cannery, but it is fully demonstrated that canned tomatoes are a safe source of Vitamin C for infants.

In many places, especially during winter, it is not possible or economical for parents to secure oranges for infants. Under such circumstances other common and less expensive foods may be substituted. The whole potato, turnip and cabbage will serve the purpose well. These need only be grated and the juice expressed, with care for cleanliness, in order to prepare highly potent antiscorbutic juice.

There is increasing interest in the possible relation of Vitamin C deficiency to diseases of the teeth and gums. The most recent and most enthusiastic investigator in this field is Dr. Hanke, who reports the arresting of both caries and pyorrhea in numerous human subjects by giving very large amounts of citrous fruit juices, lettuce, etc. There is certainly so close a relation between injury to the attaching tissues of the teeth and deficiency of Vitamin C (incipient scurvy) to warrant us in accepting as fully established the view that the provision of an abundance of the antiscorbutic principle regularly throughout infancy and childhood will greatly safeguard the development and health of the teeth, and that the inclusion of a proper amount of fresh fruit and of uncooked vege-

tables in the diet of the adult will tend to protect against dental disease.

One of the most unexpected discoveries which has a bearing on infant nutrition is that of Dr. Macy of the Merrill-Palmer School, that either human or cow's milk does not provide even a fair margin of safety over the minimum nutritive requirements of the infant, of one of the water-soluble Vitamins, presumably Vitamin B (the antineuritic substance; B₁ according to British nomenclature). Her studies show that it is desirable to supplement at an early age, the food of infants with some appropriate substance which is rich in the water-soluble Vitamins.

The outstanding researches in the field of human nutrition during the past decade undoubtedly relate to rickets, its cause and prevention. There is in cod liver oil a substance, Vitamin D, which is indispensable to the normal development of the skeleton. It has been shown that ergosterol, a sterol found widely distributed in the plant kingdom, but more abundant in fungi than in flowering plants, acquires, when irradiated with ultra-violet rays, the property of influencing calcium and phosphorus metabolism and the calcification of the epiphyses in the same manner as does Vitamin D supplied by cod liver oil. Ergosterol is prepared in large amounts from yeast or the oil of ergot, and is now sold as a therapeutic agent after irradiation. It is dissolved in a vegetable oil which is more palatable than cod liver oil, and the product known as viosterol is now replacing cod liver oil in infant feeding to a great extent. When given in connection with a suitable amount of Vitamin A, viosterol is an effective preventive of the abnormalities of skeletal development which formerly were almost certain to handicap the infant in the temperate zones.

Since rickets not only affected the skeletal growth adversely, but also pre-disposed the infant or child to respiratory infections, mainly because of lack of rigidity of the thorax, and consequent inability to breath normally, the prevention of rickets marks a great advance in the promotion of the health of children. The importance of giving all infants and children protective doses of either cod liver oil or viosterol is almost universally appreciated by mothers, and

the beneficial effects are already clearly evident.

A direct product of the experimental studies on rickets is our appreciation of the beneficial effects of sunlight on health. There are ultra-violet rays in the light in effective amount wherever the sunshine is not spoiled by smoke or shut out by clouds. It is not improbable that there are beneficial effects of sunlight other than those attributable to ultra-violet rays. Dr. E. Luce Clausen has demonstrated a physiological effect of infra-red rays on the growth of rats which is probably of great significance.

The importance of providing an abundance of Vitamin A in the diet of the child has been repeatedly emphasized by researches on the relation of deficiency of this Vitamin to resistance to infection. In animals it has been observed that as a result of Vitamin A deficiency there is an invasion of the ear and nasal cavities by bacteria forming an accumulation of purulent material.

THE MARCH ISSUE

WHY DRAMA IN SCHOOLS?

DRAMA AS A CENTRE FOR
ENGLISH TEACHING

Edith Craig
SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY
SHOULD UNITE

GROUP PLAY MAKING

THE VALUE OF PUPPETS

Sir Archibald Flower
MAKING SHAKESPEARE LIVE

The Feeding of the Child

S. J. COWELL, M.R.C.P.

Professor of Dietetics in the University of London

IT is perhaps characteristic of our race that although many of the most important recent scientific discoveries in the field of nutrition have been made in Great Britain, we in this country have paid but scant attention to the practical application of these discoveries to our everyday lives. In America education and health authorities have been quick to realize the significance of this modern work, especially in relation to the feeding of the growing child, and across the Atlantic the principles of correct feeding not only engross the attention of those who are responsible for the care of children in institutions, but are also being taught to the parents of children who live at home, and to such children themselves. It is true that in Great Britain we are beginning to realize that to ensure the development of healthy bodies in our children it is not sufficient merely to supply them with sufficient food to satisfy their appetites, but the full appreciation of the value of giving the right kinds of food is certainly not as widespread as it should be.

The fundamental importance of correct feeding in childhood may perhaps be realized if we consider the results which may be expected from it. These include (1) definite improvement in physique and rate of growth; (2) diminished susceptibility to infective diseases; (3) perfect formation of the skeleton; (4) the development of good teeth with greatly diminished liability to decay; (5) long lasting resistance to infective and degenerative diseases which are liable to appear in adult life.

To obtain as far as possible perfect physical development, correct feeding should be established at the very beginning of the child's existence. Milk, of course, forms the basis of the infant's food during the first year, whether he is fed naturally or artificially, but in our climate neither human milk nor cow's milk can be relied upon at all seasons of the year to contain a sufficiency of all the food substances necessary to secure the perfect development of the child's growing tissues, and it is therefore

advisable to supplement the milk with these necessary substances. This can be done by giving orange juice, or as an alternative where expense must be considered, tomato juice or the raw juice of swedes, to supply the vitamin which prevents scurvy, and cod liver oil, which contains the two very important Vitamins A and D which respectively raise the resistance of the child to infections and determine the normal and perfect development of his bones and teeth.

Cod liver oil may safely be given to very young infants in doses of one quarter of a teaspoonful a day, and this quantity should be gradually increased to three teaspoonsful a day, and may with great advantage be continued at this amount right through the pre-school age and even into the school age. Children who cannot be brought to tolerate the oil, although such are rare when the oil is begun at an early age, may be given as a substitute preparations containing Vitamins A and D, such as radio malt or radiostoleum, which have the same kind of action as cod liver oil. The action of Vitamin D in controlling the development of the bones and teeth is reproduced by sunshine falling on the bare skin, so that when children have the opportunity of being outside in the sunshine without too many clothes on, there is not the same necessity for the supply of extra Vitamin D in the form of cod liver oil.

In considering the diets best suited for school children it will be advantageous to mention first the foods which should be included as a routine, and then indicate how the rest of the diet should be made up. The first consideration should be an adequate supply of milk. Dr. H. C. Corry Mann's investigations (see page 38) on the effect of giving school children an extra pint of milk daily, in addition to the amount ordinarily included in their diet, leave no room for doubt as to the value of a liberal supply of this food. Obviously, attention should be paid to the question of the purity of the milk. At the present time, probably the safest proceeding to ensure that no diseases are transmitted from im-

pure milk is to supply pasteurized milk. Pasteurization may cause a partial loss of one or two desirable constituents of milk, but these can easily be replaced in other foods.

Other dairy produce is also extremely valuable food for children. Cream contains the important Vitamins A and D which we have already mentioned, though its expense obviously makes its liberal use impossible in ordinary circumstances. Cheese is a valuable food of which perhaps sufficient use is often not made. Eggs are of particular value, because they contain practically every food element that is essential for the development of the growing animal, and they should be supplied regularly to children. Butter contains the same important vitamin constituents as cream and is therefore a far more valuable food than margarine. Ordinary brands of margarine are a very poor substitute for butter and it is false economy to supply them except under the pressure of serious financial difficulties.

Vegetables and fruit are often not used as freely as they should be. Potatoes are usually supplied liberally, and this is probably very sound practice; but many children are persuaded only with difficulty to eat green vegetables and such valuable vegetables as carrots. These articles of food supply very important nutritive principles and efforts should be made to have them cooked and served as attractively as possible so that children may learn to partake of them freely. Similarly, salads are of considerable value and are not necessarily expensive. Tomatoes, watercress, lettuce and celery might be included more freely in school dietaries than they are at the present day. Fresh fruit is certainly an expensive item, but at certain times of the year it could be supplied at many schools in greater quantities than is done at present.

Dairy produce, and especially milk, eggs, fresh vegetables, and to a less degree salads and fruit, may be considered essentials of the diet, and it now remains to fill up the gaps. Meat will usually be supplied in sufficient quantities, though it is not absolutely essential if the diet contains liberal amounts of milk, cheese and eggs. The rest of the diet will consist largely of sugar and cereals—bread, flour used for making puddings and cakes, and such articles as rice.

The cereals play a great part in the nourishment of mankind because they are comparatively easy to produce in large quantities and are therefore cheap. Yet in some respects they are not ideal foods, and it has been shown lately that they contain substances which are definitely harmful, increasing, for instance, the liability to rickets and dental decay, unless they are eaten with liberal quantities of other foods such as dairy produce and fresh vegetables, which counteract their ill effects. Curiously enough, wholemeal bread or bread made with added wheat germ produces these harmful effects more easily than white bread, and oatmeal more readily than any other common cereal. It has been proved that dental decay in children can be arrested by correct feeding, and to bring about this result it appears to be necessary to limit as far as possible the consumption of cereals, and to give plentiful supplies of dairy produce, fresh vegetables and some good source of Vitamin D such as cod liver oil. Rice is not one of the worst offenders in producing the harmful effects associated with the cereals as a group, so that if it is cooked with milk it is a reasonably good food for children. Bread will, of course, be given—not necessarily wholemeal bread, for the reason we have given—and probably sometimes ‘stodgy’ puddings made with flour. The point that seems of real importance is that the child should be given an adequate allowance of the foods that we know exert a beneficial influence, and satisfy his hunger with the less valuable cereals, and not be given enormous quantities of merely satisfying foods with small amounts of the more valuable varieties thrown in as a flavouring. The actual amount of food given to school children at the present day is usually sufficient, though sometimes it is not realized that children round about the age of fourteen years require as much food as adults.

Variety in the menus and attractiveness in the serving of food should be aimed at. The children should be encouraged to take a reasonable time over their meals and not bolt down their food as quickly as possible. Though it is certainly not desirable to make children into food faddists it is important to let them know that they cannot expect to develop healthy bodies unless they pay some attention to their feeding habits.

Books for All from a Travelling Library

A. S. COOKE

County Librarian to the Kent (England) Education Committee

WET and stormy weather such as we have had this winter makes one realize the necessity and the value of books.

Owing to the spread of the public library movement, there is now no one who need be without books. In addition to a public library in almost every town of any importance, the county libraries have made books accessible to people living in the country and in the smaller towns.

The organization of these libraries is much the same in all counties. They are administered by a county librarian working under the education committee. From the headquarters library—usually in the county town—books are distributed to all the centres, and are put in the charge of a voluntary local librarian.

In Kent the scheme has been in existence since November 1921, and there are now some

150,000 books in circulation in the county. As many as 1,223,000 books were borrowed during last year, which proves that the library has met a long-felt need.

The distribution of books in this county is done by means of two library book vans. These vans, filled with books from the headquarters library, visit each centre two or three times a year. The local librarian is informed at what time the van will be in the village and is asked to call together as many of the borrowers as possible to help choose the fresh collection of books. While the new books are being chosen, the old ones are checked off by the librarian in charge of the van and the whole exchange is carried out in about one hour.

As will be seen from the accompanying photograph, the van is divided into four compartments and the books are arranged on shelves on three sides of each compartment. Two of these



Which Book shall I choose?

are filled with fiction, one with books on various subjects, science, travel, history, biography etc., and only the fourth compartment is allotted to the children. For it must be remembered that the county libraries contain primarily adult books. The books in the junior section, as in all public libraries, are only a small percentage of the whole stock.

But the love of reading—the love of adventure really, I suppose—is in almost every child, and it is well-nigh impossible to keep up with their insatiable appetites. The library, at present at any rate, has nothing like sufficient books to supply the demand. There are 75,666 children in the elementary schools in Kent, and only about 32,000 books in the junior section of the library. It is necessary, therefore, to limit the readers to those over twelve years of age and local librarians tell sad stories of having to turn the little ones away. The demand is all the more striking because the Kent Education Committee make a grant towards the provision of school libraries which are supplied in addition

to the books from the county library. But even taken together, there do not appear to be enough books to satisfy all the children who want to read.

Every effort is made to stock the county library with good editions of the children's books and the school-like edition is avoided whenever possible. The better the look of the book, the more the children prize it and therefore the more they take care of it. To country children a book is still a very precious thing, and it is seldom that these children have to be reproved for taking insufficient care of their books.

Though much is already done by the county libraries, much still remains to be done and one can spend happy hours dreaming of the ideal library service when every reader will be able immediately to get the book he wants, when he will be able to have as many as he wants, and when there will be bright, cheerful reading rooms with attractive corners for the children where they can browse to their heart's content.



The Travelling Library of the Kent Education Committee

The Omnipotent Babe—II

PAUL BOUSFIELD

Author of 'The Omnipotent Self', 'Sex and Civilization', 'Functional Nervous Diseases' etc.

(In the December 1930 issue of the 'New Era' Dr. Bousfield discussed the Nature of Early Training and the Unconscious. These articles are based on a book to be published later under the above title)

MOST people, were they asked at what moment the child's mind first began to register feelings, thoughts and emotions, would probably say, 'At the moment of birth.' This statement appears to have but little evidence in support of it and much against it.

The act of birth has performed no sudden or miraculous change upon the growth and tissues of the body. Before birth, they were living tissues, and we know that the muscles and the heart were at work. Why then should we assume that the brain has registered nothing before birth? It certainly learned to regulate the action of the heart and secretions, the blood pressure, and the motions of the limbs. We are therefore justified in assuming that it must be capable of registering impressions.

What impressions is the brain likely to have received and registered before birth? It would most certainly hear the sounds of the blood rushing through the mother's arteries, and the sounds from the outer world, muffled and indistinct when they had penetrated the mother's body. All these would be of a soft crooning nature, and those caused by the blood in the mother's arteries would be of a humming, rising and falling type, a kind of rhythmic lullaby similar to that the mother will hum to the child when she wishes to put it to sleep later on. We should *expect* these sounds to be registered on the child's mind so that if it ever heard their like again, some chord of feeling-memory would be struck, and some emotional association brought to mind. In the second place, external movements would be registered on the child's mind as the mother walked about. There would be a swaying or swinging movement. Once more, we should expect that when, in after life, the child experienced a swaying movement, a chord of memory would be touched again, and these earlier associations would be revived; not as a conscious memory or fact, of course, but as

a feeling.

The child's pre-birth condition is one as near omnipotence as may be. It absorbs oxygen, is fed and kept warm and comfortable without any effort whatsoever. It has to make no struggle for its existence. As its voluntary movements are limited, it learns that it can be most comfortable by making least effort. Here we see the beginning of that which we all possess in after-life, *inertia*, the difficulty of making a beginning at anything, the objection to make efforts.

What happens to this omnipotent little creature at birth? It goes through the probably painful process of having its position roughly changed and being thrust out into an atmosphere cold and unusual to it. Moreover it has to make its first struggle for breath, its first effort to sustain existence. And in the struggle for breath it utters cries, which by experience it very soon finds to be magic sounds which enable it to fulfil its wishes.

During the first weeks of the infant's life this delusion is largely kept up. Few people think there is any harm in attending to all a baby's wants in the first month of its life. They forget entirely that its emotional condition and attitude towards life, apart from actual thought, may inevitably be affected at this period.

The mental life of the omnipotent babe is entirely on the emotional level of experience. The intellect at birth has no appreciable development, the child has no instinctive love for its parents. Its sole interest is in its own comfort, its sole love for itself. Any effort is painful in the strictest sense. The tendency to the development of its own powers and senses, and of interest in the world around it (which is capable of beginning its activity within a few weeks) is the one the educator is concerned to foster. If properly encouraged and given enough suitable material to be exercised upon, this tendency will dominate the primitive tendency to return to

the pre-birth condition. During the months of infancy the child hovers, as it were, between the two. Upon the direction it then takes, its future adaption to the facts of life and to the struggle with reality will largely depend.

The usual imitation of the pre-birth condition, the rocking, the lullaby, and so forth, are harmful, for they fix upon the infant's feeling-nature too strong an impression of the pre-birth 'omnipotence' described. But the infant's acquaintance with reality must not be too sudden nor harsh. It must not be subjected to too vigorous cold ; shocks and excessive excitations should be avoided. The usual methods of talking to and playing with the infant should tend to awakening its interest in the world outside itself.

LOVE AND HATE

There is a tendency to assume that love for the parent is the normal emotion of the child and that hate is unnatural to it ; but the contrary is observed. Hate is often present, and this is to be expected, for hate is the emotion directed towards the cause of anything which gives pain or displeasure, and love is the emotion directed towards that which relieves pain or gives pleasure. In the adult, ideas connected with hate are often repressed, but in the infant this is not so.

Love and hate are superlative terms, and it must be understood that in using them the lesser degrees are always included. The primitive feeling present in the infant justifies the use here of superlative terms, for that feeling may be fully as intense as any adult knows in himself. Since, however, the child's expression of feeling is limited by its physical immaturity, and because its feeling is attached to objects and interests which the adult does not realize and is relatively easily turned into another channel, the adult usually makes the fundamental mistake of failing to recognize the strength and importance of the primitive feeling of the child. It is the power of expression that is developed with growth rather than the feeling itself. The principle should be always to lead the child so that the feeling is attached to some external activity ; it must not be driven into itself without expression for the feeling.

A child's feelings are more directly and obviously connected with pleasure or with pain,

and its relief, than are those of the adult. This is characteristic of primitive and direct feeling. Let us for a moment consider hate in its lesser aspect of dislike. The child states that it 'hates' nasty medicine, because when it is given to the child it causes certain excitations in the nerves of the tongue. We may call these excitations 'painful'—which term will include all unpleasant sensations. And the emotion of *hate* or *dislike* is directed to the apparent cause of the 'pain', that is, to the medicine and the giver of the medicine. If the child is afterwards given a sweet, it directs its feeling of pleasure towards the sweet, and towards the person who gave it, and is said to *like* or *love* that which removes the pain.

This is a simple statement of facts. Many people will now object that they can give instances in which like or love is an entirely positive emotion accompanied by no painful excitation. But we have to take into account the imagination. Examples of the effect of imagination are constantly seen in children ; for instance, they very frequently reserve the choicest piece of food on their plates until the end of the meal, thus experiencing the 'pleasure of anticipation'. But this pleasure of anticipation necessitates also a repressed and unconscious pain—the pain of deprivation, i.e. of waiting.

The first painful sensation of the new-born infant is undoubtedly that due to the cold air on its skin. Every time the child is undressed, the painful sensation returns, and is associated with the cause, and a feeling of resentment or dislike (the primitive foundation of hate) is directed towards the mother or nurse. Immediately afterwards, however, the same person removes the sensations, and now pleasure, with its accompanying feeling of love, is directed towards this person. Thus we have an alternation of love and hate towards the same person.

Other sources of painful sensation are those connected with the stomach and the mouth. The empty stomach is irritated by the gastric juices, a sensation known as hunger is produced, and the baby is put to the mother's breast. The gastric sensation is relieved, and love is the emotion felt towards the mother and the breast. Here the mother is not associated with the painful sensation, for she does not cause the hunger, there is no alternation of 'love' and 'hate', and we may say that *love begins to predominate to-*

wards the mother. But simultaneously with the child being put to the breast, other sensations connected with the mouth begin to appear. The exact nature of these we do not know; we do know however, that there is some excitation connected with the mouth, which first appears in connection with feeding, and that it is this which the child proceeds to relieve by the act of sucking, quite independently of actual hunger.

The mother now removes the child from the breast, and the oral excitation is increased. The child cries, it experiences a sense of 'pain', it has at once a grievance against the cause (the mother), and hate is directed towards the mother, to be replaced by love as soon as the infant is again presented with an object to suck. I particularly wish to point out here a third factor which is entering at this period into the child's life. Not only does this series of activities connected with the mouth produce reactions which may be recognized as primitive 'love' and 'hate', but we have also the foundations of a certain *fear of loss*. For obviously after a few experiences in which the child finds that the pleasurable breast is removed from it, it will begin to anticipate and fear that removal, *and the more important this feature of its life has become, the more will fear of loss become a part of the child's character, a mental trait, not afterwards to be overcome.*

Other important series of unpleasant sensations are those connected with excretion, i.e. with the regulation of the bowels and bladder. When the child is a few months old, the mother begins to teach it that excretion must be under voluntary control, that the child must give some sign when it requires to exercise these functions. Here again we have the alternating emotions of 'hate' and 'love' towards the mother—hate because she insists on control, interfering with the child's desires, and love when she releases control. All this may be magnified, however, by an entirely reverse condition of affairs, for the child, having once learned to produce a state of excitation, that is to say, by control, tends to increase this state, and to become constipated. Again the mother interferes, this time in an opposite direction, and here again a certain hate is directed at the mother. Between

the ages of one and two years, a whole series of important complications may arise in this connection, which may be shortly summarized as a struggle for power combined with the desire to remain in the state of pre-birth omnipotence.

It is necessary to realize that the adult conception of the important and unimportant things in life, regulated largely by intelligence and imagination, is completely different to, and in many respects the very reverse of, the infantile. Things which seem to us trifles in the routine of the infant's life, are really of essential importance, and its emotional attitude in regard to them forms the ground-work for its future emotional attitude towards things which loom important in adult life. The essential error made by us in training children is to regard them as young adults, and as having a scale of values similar to ours, though different in degree.

Thus the extra excitations induced by the mother to prevent constipation *tend to create a great local interest in the organs of excretion*—an emotional interest to the child far beyond anything which the adult, with his cultivated intellectual interest, ever usually appreciates. Each individual is gifted only with a limited supply of energy, and the more he localizes it in infancy, the less able is he to dispose of it at will in later life. Apart from mere local interest, attention to the importance of a bodily function tends also to increase the interest of the child in itself, rather than on things outside itself.

Finally, round such apparently trifling matters as these are grouped the first conflicts of the infant regarding its own power. Since it was born with all power, and then begins to find itself without power, its immediate struggle is to get back to the pre-birth state of omnipotence and since it cannot actually attain this it tries to attain substitutes, and naturally resents every item of control which demonstrates its powerlessness. The two first experiences which lead to this primary conflict are those connected with the removal of its own control over oral and excretory excitations. It is obvious that the strength of excitations and the importance attached to their relief, at this period of life, will play a considerable part in the struggle for power just as it does in the fear of loss, whether it be loss of power or loss of pleasure.

Pioneer Education in Rhodesia

L. HADEN GUEST

PIONEER education in Rhodesia is not 'new' education at all. It is the provision for the essential primary, secondary and continued education on orthodox lines in a pioneer country.

The physical pioneering of men into the wilderness, the story of exploration, hunting, warfare with primitive tribes, treaties with chiefs and annexation—all this is only a generation old. Even now the Rhodesias, North and South, are only partially surveyed and partly explored. Much of the agricultural, pastoral and mineral resources of these countries are still unknown. Still are the Rhodesias in the early experimental stages of a white man's civilization conquering Africa.

The mere statement of the figures of area and population shows something of the problems of settlement, organization and government which must be solved before the more difficult problems of the 'new' education can be tackled.

Southern and Northern Rhodesia between them have an area nearly four times as big as the whole of the United Kingdom, but their white population is only about 60,000, 50,000 of these being in Southern Rhodesia and scattered over an area larger than Great Britain, and 10,000 in Northern Rhodesia, an area more than twice as great. This population will certainly increase rapidly with the mining development that is taking place.

The first school founded in Rhodesia was at Salisbury, the capital of Southern Rhodesia, in the year 1892. The school premises consisted of a wattle-and-daub hut and had accommodation for three or four pupils. All school pioneering in Rhodesia was done by religious bodies, this first school at Salisbury being in charge of the Dominican Sisters. Later on the Church of England and the Dutch Reformed Church provided schools by the help of Government grants, and from that time on the development of the education service has been continuous.

The earliest difficulties of settlement, at least in Southern Rhodesia, have been overcome. The country is now provided with roads which

are passable most of the year, with railways, telegraphs and the physical apparatus of Government and established western-type civilization. But many problems remain, of which the physical difficulties and cost of transport is one of the chief.

In both the Rhodesias the possibility of rapid and unanticipated expansion may always provide the need for an emergency provision of schools and teaching staff. For instance, in the north of Northern Rhodesia, near the border of the Belgian Congo, a new great copper field is being opened up by a number of mining companies who are investing over £20,000,000 in development work which is only three or four years old. This copper field is expected to rank as one of the greatest copper-producing areas of the world within the next ten years and elaborate preparations are being made for the housing and care of a white population of 20,000 people during the next few years. Probably this means an additional 100,000 or 200,000 natives and the creation of a big industrial and business centre rivalling Johannesburg. But already the problem of education is being tackled. At Mufilira, one of the mines now being developed, I met the woman teacher in charge, and saw the children going to school in the morning in the same kind of school uniforms, with the same kind of books and the same kind of expressions on their faces as are seen in Cape Town or in London. Five years ago, three years ago even, Mufilira was primitive bush, the open savanna country of the high veld in the tropics. Now there are houses with electric light, water laid on, adequate drainage, and the surroundings of the mechanized western life. But still the wild is only a stone's throw away.

This rapid industrial and business expansion, this contact with wild nature and with primitive men, makes a very different background for education in school from anything with which Europe is familiar. Further, the social history of Rhodesia goes back only a few decades, and the new copper field has a savage ancestry.

Ndola is the government township for this copper area and forty years ago it was the headquarters of the slave trade in this part of Africa with slave routes leading to it and away from it for thousands of miles.

In educational matters Southern Rhodesia leads the way. This colony is self-governing through an elected legislature, and besides its white population it has to look after about one million natives. The native population of Northern Rhodesia is placed at about one and a quarter million.

Fortunately for educational administration, the population of these two countries is concentrated, for the most part, in comparatively small areas. A large part of the population of Southern Rhodesia lives in the towns. In Northern Rhodesia there are concentrations of population in and around several towns, but the bulk will be in the new copper field.

Southern Rhodesian education has been planned almost from the beginning. In 1908 an Educational Commission reporting on education in the colony induced the then Government to take over the responsibility for primary education. A second commission in 1916 confirmed the Government in the policy which had developed of concentrating secondary education mainly in the towns, and since then a complete structure of primary and secondary education has been built up.

A third commission, which reported in 1929, had as two of its members, Mr. Frank Tate, C.M.G., until recently Director of Education of the State of Victoria, Australia, and Professor Fred Clarke, formerly Professor of Education at Cape Town University, and now holding the same post at McGill University, Montreal, Canada.

On the basis of the report of this commission, elementary education for white children is to be

made compulsory, and various changes are to be made so as to expand the provision of educational facilities and improve the qualifications and status of teachers. Particular attention is being paid to education in agriculture, pastoral farming and forestry. Increased facilities are being provided

for other technical, commercial and continuation education at Salisbury and at Bulawayo, and an experiment is to be made in increasing facilities for rural secondary education.

The first 'special' classes of children to receive attention are the backward and mentally deficient, whose numbers are to be ascertained.

Owing to the scattered population, it is necessary in Southern Rhodesia to provide for

a greater proportion of residential schools than is the case in most other countries. The number of children in attendance at school at 31st December 1929 was 8,046, of whom 3,023 were boarders, 1,775 of them being in boarding schools wholly maintained by the Government. The Government claims that it has a larger proportion of its child population in boarding schools than has any other civilized country. The 1929 Commission has reported in favour of a further extension of the boarding school system.

Owing again to the scattered population it is physically impossible for some children to attend school, and financially impossible for the Government to increase its expenditure beyond a certain limit. In addition, therefore, to the boarding schools there is to be an extension of education by correspondence as already developed in Australia and in Canada, and the Government will continue to subsidize governesses for 'farm schools'. The average number of pupils in schools of this type is about five.

Education in Southern Rhodesia is not entirely free, charges varying from thirty shillings



Native Children—Northern Rhodesia

per term for the younger to fifty shillings per term for the older pupils, and there are boarding house charges. In 1929 the 1,775 children at Government boarding houses paid an average of about £40 each per annum. When it is realized that £30 a month is regarded as a minimum rate of pay for a skilled artisan in Rhodesia, and that the general standard of life is high, fees appear rightly as a small proportion of income.

In Northern Rhodesia the education question is at a still earlier stage of development. The total enrolment at the close of the school year 1928 was 518; 291 being boys and 227 girls;

of the Rhodesias live in a condition of primitive tribal organization. Education of the natives has already begun, and the school at Domboshawa on the Native Reserves near Salisbury, is endeavouring to teach by example as well as in more formal ways, and seems likely to do very useful work. The pupils are not only taught the elements of reading, writing and calculating, but they are trained in crafts, and given instruction in actual farming operations (native agriculture is very backward). The interesting experiment of letting the native pupils build houses of their own on a new plan (provided by the school) will probably effect a great alteration in the housing



Rhodesian Native School

[Both illustrations copyright by L. Haden Guest]

and 32 teachers were employed. The total number of Government schools was eleven, and there were three small aided schools open for varying periods of the year.

In Northern Rhodesia any 'new education' will have to wait for greater industrial and farming development. But in Southern Rhodesia there are already indications of fresh developments, and a private group of citizens at Salisbury is considering the establishment of a school of a modern type under private auspices.

In both Southern and Northern Rhodesia the question of native education is in the background. Many of the two million native people

ideas of native people over a wide area. Many of the manners, customs and habits of the primitive tribe are reasonably adapted to the conditions of life in a reed hut or a savanna forest—but are very imperfectly adapted to conditions of town life in native locations or to working life on farms.

But this immense field of native education has hardly been explored and is still almost entirely in the hands of the missionaries. The work done by many missions is admirable, but unfortunately the different religious divisions of the Christian faith in fact—if not in intention—compete against each other for converts and

'spheres of influence', and the native mind becomes confused. To the non-missionary it would seem in the highest degree desirable that the missionaries should discuss the matter among themselves and arrange to present a statement of the Christian position from the standpoint of only one church or sect in a particular area.

The pioneering life of the Rhodesias is unfolding at the present day in a country of partly unexplored and unknown potentialities and before an audience of two million black people new to the way of the western type of organized life. The problem of the education of the white people cannot escape from the problem of responsibility for the country and

responsibility for the native peoples who are, and who will in all probability remain, its most numerous inhabitants.

What has the 'new' education to offer to help these pioneering problems? The call of the Rhodesias is a call to the adventurous and the enterprising, and from them must come a contribution to the solution of one of the world's great problems. What is to be the relation in Africa between Black and White? And in another form the question is supremely one for the teacher. How is the white man in Africa to learn to be big enough for his responsibilities and have vision enough for the leadership he must assume, or perish?

Education for International Understanding

GEORGE H. GREEN

Lecturer in Education in the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth

SINCE the account of the Aberystwyth investigation into racial prejudice in children of school age in Wales (carried out jointly by my colleague, Mr. Sydney Herbert, and myself) was published in the *New Era**, there have been opportunities for reflection and discussion, directed in the main to the question of what can be done.

We believe it possible, in the early years of the child's home and school life, to build up bodies of favourable sentiment towards people of other races and alien national groups.

A possible technique is suggested by a number of the answers we received from young children, who had realized that they owed the onions they enjoyed so much to the French, bananas to the labours of the negro, and ingenious toys to the thought and industry of the German. On every occasion, that is to say, that an onion or banana is eaten with pleasure, or the performances of a mechanical toy are enjoyed,

links of sympathy and friendly feeling are being strengthened.

This is something very different from lessons on the breakfast table, or on the countries from which rice and tapioca and cocoa come to us. In the first place, we are dealing with things which delight children, and not with things which are merely taken as a matter of course; in the second, we are dealing with *peoples*, and not with *countries*. The distinction is vital.

This is no more than a suggestion. The plan should be worked out in detail by those who are actually working in the schools. The real difficulty is that of getting the information into the schools, the pictures, the human details of the lives of the peoples of the world who co-operate with our own people in making life pleasant for us. There is an opportunity here for the exercise of imagination and enterprise on the part of manufacturers and distributors; but imagination and enterprise, alas! are rare gifts.

*April 1930. This issue of the *New Era* was a special number dedicated to the League of Nations.

A German Experiment in Secondary Education— The Dürerschule, Dresden

EDITHA KÜHN

Member of the Educational Council of the School

THIS state experimental school in Dresden is the most modern of the secondary schools of Saxony, and was founded by a group of educational reformers. The aims were to put to a practical test some of the theories upon which new education is based, and to provide a school which should be a pattern for and a stimulus to other schools. They also determined to discard any theory or method that had proved unsuccessful under trial, and to make known the fact. The school continues, without any break, new practices begun in the experimental elementary schools, so that such things as the child's response to his environment and the methods of the activity school are considered of much importance.

The school opened in 1922 with only one class; it now, nine years later, has sixteen classes and a total of four hundred and fifty pupils, boys and girls. Its goal is education through activity.

The method of learning is characterized by individual and independent work. The ability to study and think out things for themselves; the capacity to work on one subject until it has been mastered, and to search out and understand rather than to cultivate parrotlike memory—these are developed and encouraged in the children. The most important consideration is the freeing of the creative spirit and the drawing out of spiritual qualities. The subject matter is not presented and explained by the teacher; the pupils collect their own material and then discuss it under his guidance. This does not mean that a sound foundation of factual knowledge is not ensured, for the teachers, by representation and explanation, round off and

amplify the knowledge the children gain through their own efforts.

Each form is in the charge of one teacher under whom all related aspects of different subjects are gathered into an aggregate and

made a whole study in themselves. One whole, or 'global' study might, for instance, be formed of German, history, geography and sociology; another might comprise German, geography and English. While in the lower school global treatment of related aspects of different studies is obligatory, it may be less strictly enforced in the upper school, and any one

subject in all its aspects be given special attention. All aspects of any subject are regarded as of equal importance in the harmonious development of the individual. Environment is studied in connection with the different subjects by means of newspapers, films, wireless, and the many exhibitions for which Dresden is world-famous. In the study of foreign languages, the reading of English and French newspapers plays a considerable part, and there is a brisk exchange of letters with children in America, England and France.

Knowledge of environment is also gained by means of class expeditions and rambles, which supply the material necessary for global study in the lower school. In the three lowest forms, one day a week is set apart as a Ramble Day. Each class explores Dresden and its surroundings with its form master or mistress, and the happy days spent together strengthen the intimacy between teacher and pupils, and foster the children's feeling that they and their teacher form a friendly little community. In the upper and middle schools the *Wandertage* are

*How secondary education
can yet be creative and 'new'
though carried out in an
old building and
overshadowed by
examinations, is described in
this article by Frl. Kühn*

much less numerous, amounting to only ten in the year. Of these, five are class rambles and the remainder are devoted to the study of a special subject.

Knowledge is increased and rounded off by actual working on the materials of study. The children learn through actual life situations; they learn, also, to rely on themselves and to use their own resources to the fullest extent. Individual gifts and capabilities are given scope, and the children are trained to express by drawing, painting, modelling, and so forth, what they learn. The result is that they are happy and deeply interested in their work. In addition, they are given practical instruction to encourage and develop technical skill as a part of the all-round education aimed at by the Dürerschule. On Parents' Evenings the children act plays which they themselves have written, produced and stage-managed. They make and paint their own costumes and scenery, and compose the music incidental to the plays. Christmas, Easter and various school festivities play an

important part in the school life. Every year there is a competition for which the children submit anything which is the fruit of their own independent study of a chosen subject. Each pupil in the upper school undertakes some special study over the period of a year, and free choice in the realms of science, history or language is allowed.

The Dürerschule is unique among the secondary schools of Saxony in being entirely co-educational. It has an equal number of boys and girls and of masters and mistresses. The lowest form of the school always consists of fifteen boys and fifteen girls chosen by means of psychological tests. The teaching staff, who regard co-education as the only rational and sensible preparation for life, are intensely interested in the school and its ideal of building up a creative educational community life; and they are all alive to any new trend of educational thought. The administration of the school is co-operative and is carried out by the staff.



Drawing on the Mole at Swinemünde

[Dürerschule, Dresden]

The children have a measure of self-government. Twice a year, each class chooses a boy and a girl to represent it. The representatives of all the classes meet once a week and discuss school matters with a teacher, who acts as an intermediary between the pupils and the rest of the staff. The school council is composed of all the class councils, and at its meetings class representatives give accounts of the work and lead the discussions.

If it is apparent that a child cannot fit into the life and ways of the school and of his class, if he cannot interest himself in his work, he is either transferred to another school or apprenticed to a trade. In addition to the regular classes there are courses which the upper fourth to the upper sixth forms may attend according to their needs or wishes.

The Dürerschule possesses a beautiful country home at Gohrisch, near Königstein in the heart of the fir-covered hills of Saxon Switzerland. During the summer months relays of children and teachers go to Gohrisch twice, for a fortnight at a time. A very free and happy community spirit flourishes here and they grow sturdy and alert in the fresh mountain and woodland air. Lessons are carried on in the mornings in the open air, and in the afternoons there are excursions, games, and 'hikes' through woods, up hill and down dale. In this delightful holiday school, which in its freedom and regularity approximates an English boarding school, teachers and pupils grow to understand and appreciate each other as friends and companions. In 1930 an Englishwoman spent the six summer months with the children, and arrangements are now being made for a Frenchwoman to spend the summer of this year with

them.

In Dresden, there are four periods of gymnastics a week, besides gymnastics during break; the girls of the middle and upper schools have rhythmic exercises.

Cycling, rowing and swimming are favourite sports, and in winter ski-ing in the Erz Mountains is taken up with great zest.

The most successful experiment of the Dürerschule is the exchange of classes which was begun one year after the school started. For a period of from two to four weeks, the children of one class exchange homes with the children of

another, being treated in these foster homes exactly as members of the family. Lately this exchange of classes has been extended to other towns in Germany, and also to both Great Britain and France, one group having gone in 1930 to Lyons and another to Kilsyth, near Glasgow. These exchanges play an important part in the development of character and of independence and quicken the children's interest in another nation and its language. The Dürerschule would very much like to make more exchanges with Britain: British children, especially older ones, would be quick to feel the fascination of



Fruit Picking at the Dürerschule's country Home

Dresden—the German Florence. Perhaps this article will help to interest more British people in the scheme.

Parents play an active part in the school life. When a child enters the school at the age of ten, the parents fill up a *questionnaire* which gives the staff a character sketch of the new pupil. The observations thus begun by the parents are continued by the form teacher, and every Easter a yearly report is made on the child's development and progress in the art of living.

Comparative Study of English and American Secondary Education

Arthur J. Jones, Ph.D., Chairman; E. D. Grizzell, Ph.D., Secretary

DIVISION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, 110 Bennett Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

English Committee

Cyril Norwood, Litt.D., Chairman
Harrow School, Harrow-on-the-Hill, Middlesex
C. W. Bailey, M.A., Hon. Secretary
Holt Secondary School, Liverpool

American Committee

Cheesman A. Herrick, Ph.D., Chairman
Girard College, Philadelphia
John A. Lester, Ph.D., Secretary
Hill School, Pottstown, Pa.

Memorandum

Arrangements have now been completed for linking American with English schools, and the list shows the pairs of schools up to date.

Dr. Grizzell, Secretary of the Joint Committee, in writing to the Heads of the schools concerned, says it is hoped that this unique adventure in international understanding and goodwill may be successful. It is quite possible that this coupling of schools may become one of the most fruitful and important international methods of the future.

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ENGLISH AND AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

BOYS

AMERICAN

A. Public High Schools

Winchester, Virginia—Winchester High School
Trenton, N.J.—Senior High School

Baltimore, Maryland—Baltimore City College
Norwich, Conn.—Norwich Free Academy
New York—Dewitt Clinton High School
Cleveland, Ohio—Central High School
Pittsburgh, Pa.—Schenley High School

Kansas City, Mo.—Central High School
Houston, Texas—Central High School
La Grange, Ill.—Lyons Township High School

Minneapolis, Minn.—West High School
Malden, Mass.—Malden High School

ENGLISH

A. Schools maintained or aided (by local rates)

Dover, Kent—County School for Boys
Ipswich, Suffolk—Municipal Secondary School for Boys
Liverpool—Collegiate School
London (Greenwich, S.E.10)—Roan School
London (Brixton Hill, S.W.2)—Strand School
Manchester—Central High School for Boys
London (Hilldrop Crescent, Camden Road, N.7)—Holloway School
Sheffield—Firth Park Secondary School for Boys
Southampton—Taunton's School
Sutton Coldfield, Warwickshire—Bishop Vesey's Grammar School
Leeds—Roundhay School
Bolton—Bolton School

GIRLS

AMERICAN

Wayne, Pa.—Radnor High School

Elkins Park, Pa.—Cheltenham High School

Springfield, Mass.—Central High School

San Francisco, Cal.—Girls' High School
Portland, Maine—Deering High School
Louisville, Ky.—Girls' High School
Atlanta, Georgia—Girls' High School

Philadelphia, Pa.—Kensington High School

Brooklyn, N.Y.—Erasmus High School

ENGLISH

Ashford, Kent—Ashford County Secondary Girls' School
Beckenham, Kent (Lennard Road)—Beckenham County School
Bishop Auckland, Durham—Bishop Auckland County School
Bristol—Colston Girls' School
Hull—Newland High School for Girls
Liverpool—Aigburth Vale High School
London (Putney, West Hill, S.W.15)—County Secondary School
London (Parliament Hill, N.W.5)—Parliament Hill County School
London (The Grove, Camberwell, S.E.)—Mary Datchelor School

GIRLS

AMERICAN

Des Moines, Ia.—Theodore Roosevelt High School
Portland, Oregon—Lincoln High School

Denver, Colo.—West High School
Greensboro, N.C.—Greensboro High School
Minneapolis, Minn.—West High School

ENGLISH

Manchester—Central High School for Girls
Nuneaton, Warwickshire—Nuneaton High School for Girls
Oswestry—Oswestry High School for Girls
Ware, Herts.—Ware Grammar School for Girls
Leeds (Gledhow Hill)—Roundhay High School for Girls

MIXED

AMERICAN

Montpelier, Vermont—Montpelier High School
Muskogee, Okla.—Central High School
Omaha, Neb.—Central High School
St. Louis, Mo.—Soldon High School

ENGLISH

Otley, Yorks.—Prince Henry's Grammar School
Belvedere, Kent—Erith County Secondary School
Liverpool—Holt Secondary School
London (New Cross, S.E.14)—Addey and Stanhope School

BOYS

AMERICAN

B. Independent Schools

Worcester, Mass.—Worcester Academy
Port Deposit, Md.—The Tome School

Chicago, Ill.—University of Chicago High School
Exeter, N.H.—Phillips Exeter Academy
Concord, N.H.—St. Paul's School
Philadelphia, Pa.—Central High School
Philadelphia, Pa.—William Penn Charter School
Boston, Mass.—The Boston Latin School
Albany, N.Y.—Albany Academy
Pottstown, Pa.—The Hill School
Lawrenceville, N.J.—Lawrenceville School
(School submitted later)

Do.

Philadelphia, Pa.—Germantown Friends' School

ENGLISH

B. Independent and other Secondary Schools (recognized by Board of Education)

Bedford—Bedford Modern School
Birmingham—King Edward VI High School for Boys
Cambridge—Perse School
Harrow-on-the-Hill—Harrow School
Holt, Norfolk—Gresham's School
Leeds—Leeds Grammar School
London (West Kensington, W.14)—St. Paul's School
Manchester—Manchester Grammar School
Newcastle-on-Tyne—Royal Grammar School
Oundle, Northants—Oundle School
Wellington, Berks.—Wellington College
Winchester—Winchester College
London—Westminster School (St. Peter's College)
Reading—Leighton Park School

GIRLS

AMERICAN

New York City—Horace Mann High School
Bryn Mawr, Pa.—The Baldwin School
New York City—The Brearley School

Berkeley, Cal.—Anna Head School
Wellesley, Mass.—Dana Hall
Buffalo, N.Y.—Buffalo Seminary
Philadelphia, Pa.—Girls' High School
Boston, Mass.—Girls' Latin School
Albany, N.Y.—Albany Academy

Concord, Mass.—Concord Academy for Girls
New York City—Miss Chandor's School

ENGLISH

Bedford—Bedford High School
Brighton—Roedean School
London (Brook Green, W.6)—St. Paul's Girls' School
London, S.E.3—Blackheath High School
Cheltenham—Cheltenham Ladies' College
Bristol—Clifton High School for Girls
Leeds—Leeds Girls' High School
Manchester—Manchester Girls' High School
Newcastle-on-Tyne—Newcastle Central High School
Preston—Park School
St. Albans—St. Albans High School for Girls

MIXED

AMERICAN

George School (Bucks County, Pa.)—The George School

ENGLISH

Petersfield, Hants.—Bedales School

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 73

INTELLECTUAL GROWTH IN YOUNG CHILDREN
GESTALT PSYCHOLOGY
THE NEW EDUCATION IN EUROPE
AFTER 2,000 YEARS
ELEUTHEROS

Books Received

- AUFSÄTZE AUS DEM MITARBEITERKREIS DER ODENWALDSCHULE. *Zu ihrem zwanzig-jährigen Bestehen. Paul Geheeb, zum 60. Geburtstag, Oktober 1930. Printed by the Odenwaldschule, Heppenheim (Bergstrasse), Germany.*
- AUTO-EDUCATION GUIDES, V. *ABC of the Three G's, Pt. I: Grammar. For children from 5 to 11 years. By Jessie White, D.Sc., B.A. Contains an appreciative but critical account of Dr. Montessori's plan of teaching grammar to young children. The whole has been worked through and reconstructed with English-speaking children by Dr. White, who has devised a more convenient way of holding the cards. Auto-Education Institute, 46 Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1. 1s. 6d.*
- ACTIVE FRENCH READERS. Book 3. By G. M. Bennett, B.A., and E. Peyre, L. ès L. With a Foreword by Frank A. Hedgcock, D. ès. L., M.A. This volume completes the series of three Active French Readers and is intended for use in the fourth and fifth years of the normal French Course. University of London Press. Limp cloth, 1s. 9d. ; cloth boards, 2s.
- MEMORANDUM ON LATIN IN GIRLS' SCHOOLS. *Drawn up by the Classical Panel of the Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools. A.A.M.S.S. 1s.*
- BROADCASTS TO SCHOOLS. *Rural Science, The Story of the Plant, Term II. By D. Ward Cutler, M.A. The School Garden, Term II. By C. E. Hudson, F.R.H.S. Readings, Dialogues, and Talks, for Preparatory, Secondary, and other Schools, Spring Term. Your Body Every Day, an elementary course in Biology and Hygiene, Term II. By Prof. Winifred Cullis, C.B.E. Peoples and Lands of the British Empire, prepared by James Fairgrieve and Ernest Young. Music Lessons, Scholar's Manual II. By Sir Walford Davies. Early Stages in French, Term II. By E. M. Stéphan, assisted by Mlle H. Coustenoble. Children of Other Days, Term II. By Rhoda Power. The B.B.C., London. 1d. each.*
- PATCHWORK AND APPLIQUÉ. By Vera C. Alexander. *A book to show that neither Patchwork nor Appliqué belongs entirely to the expert needlewoman, and that the designs which look most difficult are often the easiest to carry out. Craft-for-All Series, Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, London. 2s. 6d.*
- RHYTHMIC EXERCISES IN COMPOUND TIME. *For the ear-training class. Rhythmic Training. Easy Musical Games and Rhythms for infants' school and kindergarten. Musical Ball Games for Children. Harmony Games for Children. All by Marion R. Anderson. J. B. Cramer & Co., New Bond Street, London, W.1. 2s. each.*
- THE WONDER BOOK OF INVENTIONS. By Professor A. M. Low, D.Sc., Chairman of the Technical Committee of the Institute of Patentees. Edited by Harry Golding. *Three hundred pictures of inventions, and twelve colour plates. Talkies, television, wireless, X-rays, salvage at sea, post-office tube railway, photography, inventions that assist the farmer, and why noise is harmful, are among the subjects dealt with in the articles.*
- THE WATER BABIES. *The Sunshine Series. Illustrated by Harry G. Theaker. Good clear print, and twenty-four pretty colour plates. Ward, Lock & Co., London and Melbourne. 3s. 6d.*
- THE BIG COSY CORNER STORY BOOK. 'Bumpy' Books Series. *Suitable for reading aloud to little people, or that they may read for themselves. Prettily illustrated in black and colours. By H. G. C. Marsh Lambert. 2s. 6d. Little Red Riding Hood. 'Follow the Dots' Series. With dots to make one's own pictures to illustrate the story. Other good illustrations in black. By H. G. C. Marsh Lambert. 1s. The Goblin Scouts. 'Little Wonder' Series. By Harry Golding. Illustrated by Thomas Maybank. Good clear print, illustrations rather grotesque. Ward, Lock & Co., London and Melbourne. 1s. 6d.*

An Experiment in Social Studies

ALICE C. RODEWALD

*Class Teacher of Grade V. Ethical Culture Branch School
27 and 32 West 75th Street, New York City*

THIS lively account of an experiment with 11-year-old children is taken in much abridged form from a booklet written by Miss Rodewald, and published by and obtainable from the Ethical Branch School, which was established in 1924 as a small experimental kindergarten and primary school, and now extends through the sixth grade. Social studies are much in vogue in America. In lieu of separate subjects such as history, geography, literature, art, handwork, there is one unified interest, as described by Miss Rodewald, embodying all these. At the same time, continuity of work is ensured.

After much discussion in a class meeting regarding social studies and the use of periods devoted to them, the children finally adopted the following programme:—*Monday*: Reading, discussing, questioning, choosing of individual topics, beginning of special research, planning of small group projects, and so forth. *Tuesday*: 'Maps or sort of geography about the country where things we are interested in were happening.'

Wednesday: Individual work. *Thursday*: The finishing of writing, factual or creative, in readiness for Friday. *Friday*: General sharing of original stories, poems, maps, charts, models or pictures, with explanations, special talks, and very informal dramatizations.

Having settled on the programme, we followed it when convenient.

Every honest teacher knows that her personal bias may colour a subject, so I shall definitely state my attitude toward the social studies, and endeavour to show where I influenced the group, and where it influenced me.

I think of history as a live investigation and an imaginative re-creation of that past which is

the root of our present and yields the seed of the future. How people lived, dressed, worked and played, thought, and created through the various arts seems to me just the material for the 'true story' that every older child demands and re-creates so happily for himself.

Re-living history with an intelligent group is a rich experience. First the 'story' and dramatic element predominates, then ideas begin to sprout, a social consciousness develops, and the beginning of social thinking. Connections and applications may be a bit general, but, at least, they are made. The angle of approach must be social, but I believe that the particular unit

studied is more productive if it is fitted to the group rather than prescribed by a curriculum.

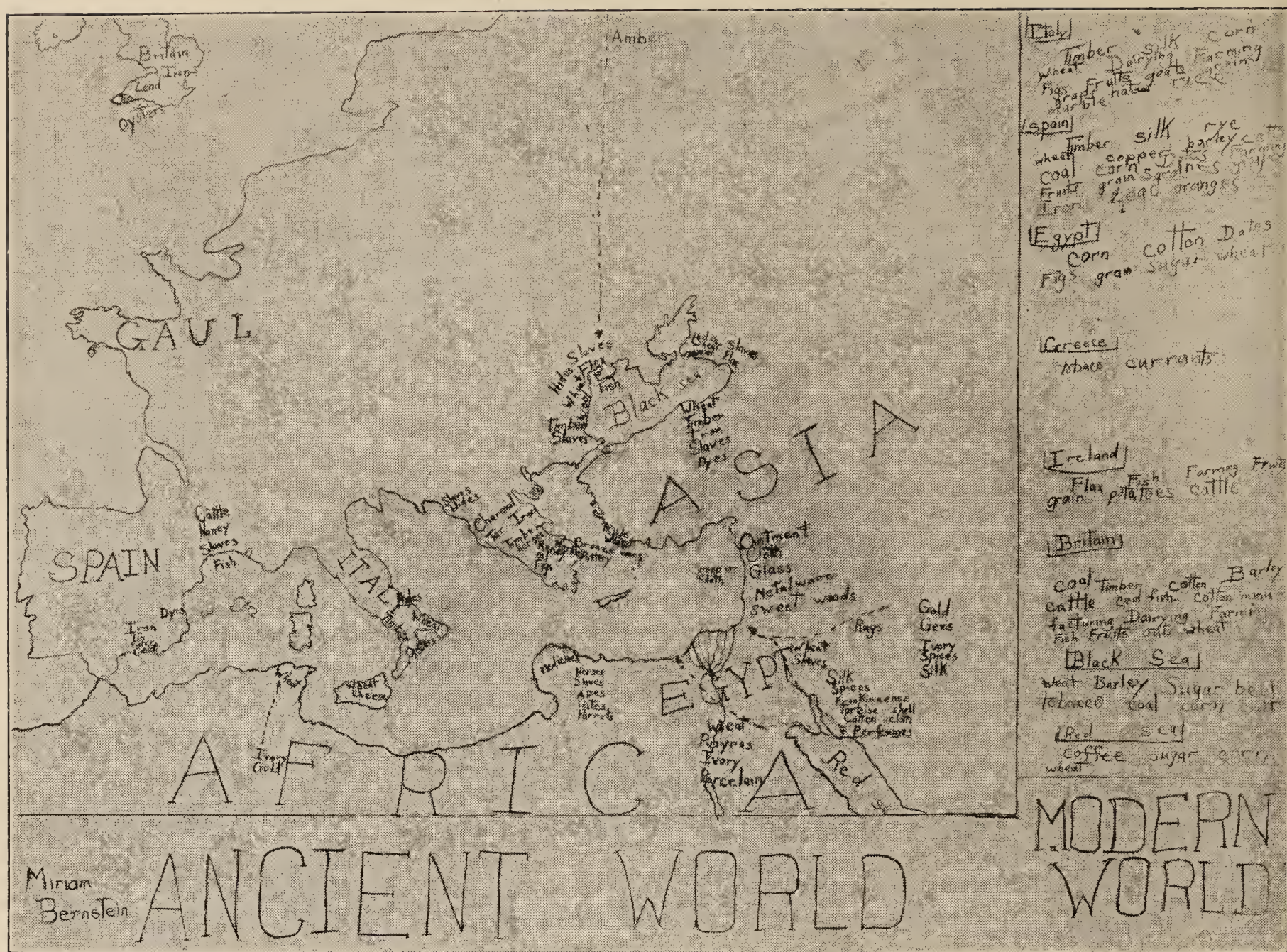
I 'set the stage' for mediæval history and the children launched out on Roman history. They eventually had an acute attack of mediæval history, but before the short school year was over they had travelled from religion in the Middle Ages to Soviet Russia and I had to sit up at night studying the latest books on

this subject to keep ahead of my wide awake group. I mention this procedure as typical of our school. We are not 'governed by the child's free choice', as we come to him with definite plans in mind that we usually carry out, but if the child sets up a promising objective we reverse our programme and follow him. (Personally I find it very stimulating.)

The initial interest in Rome was an outgrowth of the history studied the previous year. We had some Roman books, and excellent maps of Ancient Rome and rather an unusual collection of pictures, including the large plates from Speltz's *Coloured Ornament in History*.

A child who had visited Rome furnished ex-

***Can a satisfactory standard
in the skills be reached if
the learning is done through a
central theme based on the
interests of children and
breaking down the barriers
between subject and subject?
Miss Rodewald says Yes, and
shows the way***



Where there was Wealth there usually was War

cellent accounts of her impressions, profusely illustrated by Roman post cards. Seven out of sixteen children were most interested in hero stories and wars, the others were eager to learn 'how the Romans lived'. I lent them my copy of Johnston's *The Private Life of the Romans* which was much in demand, for as one boy said, 'In spite of the fact that they wasted a lot of space putting in Latin words, it's the best book for finding out things'. The contents of a notebook compiled later in the season shows a variety of interests—Roman roads, schools, books and writing, papyrus, trading, houses, camps, gods, food, laws, pirates, engines of war, sports, and heroes!

One child worked independently for weeks on a free-hand map of the Ancient World to 'prove' her idea that 'where there was wealth, there was usually war'. Hall's *Buried Cities* was

read with great interest in answer to 'How did people discover so much about the Romans?' *Number Stories of Long Ago* was referred to in connection with Roman numerals. Roman money followed, and led to an investigation of trading methods.

This led off to 'What is Italy doing nowadays?'

Mussolini and Julius Cæsar were lined up and compared! I wish I had a stenographic report of one heated argument in which 'Vox Populi, vox Dei' versus 'a strong guy like Cæsar putting it over for the people's good' almost led to blows! The stronger faction decided that 'if you governed a people so well that they could not help themselves when you got through with them, then you governed too darn well!' (Roman Britain.) Citizenship and all it implies, naturalization in our own country

and in Cæsar's time, were discussed. (Incidentally, as in the adult world, the 'intelligentzia' do most of the talking and the others listen in, unless the teacher sees fit to act as chairman.)

One October morning I took notes on a 'job day' of the group's varied occupations in connection with modern Italy. One child was drawing, colouring, and illustrating a produce map of Italy as large as himself. Another, surrounded by atlases, geography books, and weather reports, was charting rainfall and climate on an outline map. Others were working hard on harbours and commerce, which led to three boys discovering that 'flat maps are no good for making waterways clear', so they joined forces and made a large 'elevation map' in plasticine. Meanwhile, Vesuvius was being modelled by their neighbours, and Carpenter's *New Geographical Reader* (Europe) was being compared with Compton's account of Vesuvius in particular and volcanoes in general. Articles on olive oil, macaroni, silk, and Venetian glass were engaging separate investigators. The floor, desks, and tables were littered with industrious, self-directed workers humming (rather loudly!) with activity and purpose.

'What became of the Roman Empire' brought us back to *Our Ancestors in Europe* (Hall), where we followed the barbarian conquerors and the beginning of nations rather rapidly into mediæval times. Modern Germany, France and England were studied in much the same fashion as Italy had been. It was fascinating to observe the high points of interest that engaged the class attention—Germany, before and after the world war; French perfumes; 'The Song of Roland'. The latter I introduced with my own favourite translation (Clédier or Bédier, full flavour) and the children loved it. One boy read *The Story of Roland* in three versions, Baldwin's, Marshall's and Isabel Butler's, and decided in favour of the last-named because it was 'more alive, like a minstrel singing it while you imagine what's happening'.

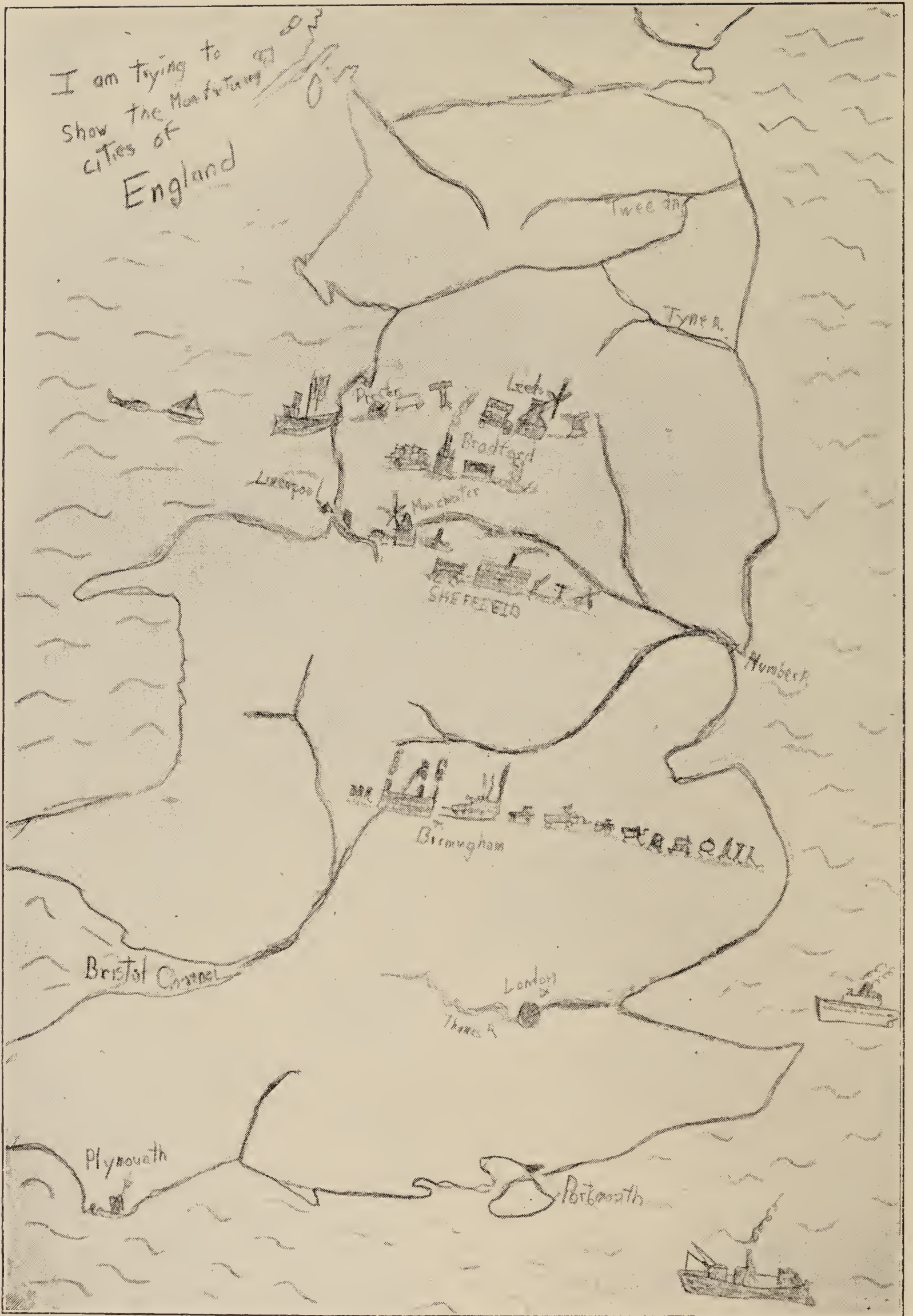
The same study period inspired one child to write a play about good King Alfred, while another made a picture map of present-day manufacturing England in which you may see for yourself that iron trots into the factories of

Birmingham and issues forth as engines, machines and so forth. Wool walks into Leeds and clothing marches from the factory. Steel enters Sheffield and there is a grand procession of tools. Fish are shown on their way to Liverpool. Rivers and ships lead the eye to ports.

A propos of discussion, we have two kinds—a spontaneous interchange of opinion that may start between two children and include anyone who happens to be interested, at the luncheon table, during class periods, free work or recess time, and a 'teacher instigated' type that I provoke to bring out a definite point, or perhaps to make a mediæval vexed question a vicarious experience. For instance, I asked the children to read the story of Frederic II with this question in mind: 'Would you have sided with the Popes or the Emperors?' Of course, they split into the requisite factions and, after a verbal riot, they had a much better understanding of the feeling that led to this division.

Shortly after the Christmas vacation a conscientious objector asked: 'If knights were riding about having adventures and battles all the time, who did the work?' Books were consulted, and manors constructed with their characteristic features standing out clearly in coloured plasticine. Two boys were particularly interested in the fact that the workers did not get a 'square deal', and there was much discussion concerning whether workers ever had got or ever would get one!

Manuscripts brought us to monasteries. I mention this here, because for no well-ordered reason we were suddenly intrigued by monasteries in the midst of crafts and trading. (Perhaps because one boy was particularly entertained at the idea of the monasteries being the 'travelling salesman's hotel in the Middle Ages!') As no one can really understand the Middle Ages who is unsympathetic to its religious point of view, this section of a large subject seems very important to me. I think it is well for children to know the part that slave labour contributed in building the monuments of antiquity, and to compare this with the spirit of the people of the Middle Ages who reared their cathedrals to reach the heights in themselves, as a result of that same religion whose darker side is only too obvious in history.



Present-day manufacturing England

[Ethical Culture Branch School, New York City]

First Steps to Freedom: An Experiment in Self-Discipline

LENA M. HORTON

Elementary Supervisor, Ironwood, Michigan

SCHOOLROOM control or discipline is a problem we continually have with us. As a teacher I have always felt that we were not giving children the proper training in self-control. The teacher says, 'Do this—do that', and the pupil does it—not because of an inner urge to do the right thing but because of an outer control—a fear of the teacher. In the United States we are 'a government of the people, by the people and for the people'. Yet we are somehow failing to give in our schools the ability to control, even to the extent of controlling self.

For a long time I turned this thing over and over in my mind and wondered just what could be done about it with 11-year-olds, in a most orthodox school which had an extremely rigid classroom organization.

Permission was finally obtained from the superintendent to try the experiment I had in mind. Our study in history of the constitution of the United States and the growth of our government gave the desired opening. We decided in this fifth-grade room that the best way really to understand the problem of government was to try it on a small scale among ourselves. A constitutional convention was called at the suggestion of the class. These children soon discovered that which grown-ups so often do not, namely, that to form a government one must know a great many things. We didn't even know how to conduct a meeting properly. That was the first discovery.

It was decided that we could best utilize the language period for this purpose—so it became a training period for learning. Rules of order, how to make a motion, how to make a forceful speech, how to express what we wanted to say, occupied our attention.

We discovered, too, that we could not write a constitution unless we knew something about the original and how it grew, a little of its background. The reading period seemed the best time to study this, to do some real research work and study in organization.

As we proceeded with the study of the constitution we learned how people were taxed. We had studied decimals in arithmetic so the study of taxation fell into the arithmetic period.

Of course only a good penman could do the writing necessary in all of this, and the signers of our constitution must be able to write their names clearly and legibly. Penmanship practice periods took on new

life. (If I were doing this now I should bring a typewriter to school and train typists.)

In geography we learned of the growth and development of the eastern sea coast states, the placing of the national capital—why it is on the eastern sea coast rather than more central. We learned why the geography of the United States made government by the people more difficult. It was very plain to the children that every person must understand all this to be a good intelligent citizen worthy of having a part in government.

Spelling became a study of terms necessary to the writing of a constitution. History was always a study of the growth of our country and of the lives of the men who were instrumental in the formation of its government: a study of their ideals and their heritage.

When we were ready again to call our constitutional convention and organize our government, we realized anew that only people with a knowledge of government can intelligently take part in it.

Our constitution was written. The little group became a small nation with a President, Congress and Supreme Court. Elections were held, appointments made, new laws made as they were needed. A week was the unit of time instead of a year. A new president was elected each month.

Space does not permit me to give our constitution, but the experiment was a success. As citizens we felt the need to know just as much about our country as possible.

The next activity grew out of the problem of industries and products in the United States. Every subject centred round the study of this problem. Another grew out of the necessity for healthy citizens; another out of the problem of commerce and world relations (this was a big one lasting some time); and still another out of a study of inventions. One project led right into the next.

That was my last, best and happiest year in the schoolroom. We teachers sometimes wonder if we make lasting impressions. Any teacher will appreciate my joy upon hearing when I returned after almost a year, that this group had demanded that they should continue their self-government, that they had proved to a sceptical teacher that they were good citizens. The experiment is now in its third year and self-government has become a part of the life of at least thirty children.

Specimen Menus

The following menus have been chosen from a number submitted, as most nearly approaching properly balanced diet. The *New Era* will gladly recommend other menus, or put readers in touch with food and health societies which would supply special menus.

From Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Mich.
Children three years of age

1. Breakfast: 1 orange, $\frac{1}{4}$ cup Quaker Oats, 4 tablespoons whole milk, 1 slice toast, $\frac{1}{4}$ teaspoon butter, 1 cup milk.

Dinner: 1 meat ball, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup cauliflower with white sauce, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup stewed tomatoes, 1 celery sandwich, $\frac{2}{3}$ cup milk, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup stewed prunes.

Supper: $\frac{1}{2}$ cup cream of vegetable soup, 1 lettuce leaf, 1 bread and butter sandwich, 1 cup chocolate blancmange, $\frac{2}{3}$ cup milk.

2. Breakfast: $\frac{1}{3}$ cup stewed apple, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup corn-flour, 4 tablespoons milk, 1 slice toast, $\frac{1}{4}$ teaspoon butter, 1 cup milk.

Dinner: $\frac{1}{3}$ cup fish loaf, 1 tablespoon white sauce, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup boiled spinach, $\frac{2}{3}$ cup milk, 1 medium celery stalk, 1 raw cabbage sandwich, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup stewed plums, 1 oatmeal biscuit.

Supper: $\frac{1}{3}$ cup mashed potatoes, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup carrots, 2 leaves lettuce, 1 cream cheese sandwich, 1 cup milk, $\frac{1}{2}$ cup baked custard.

3. Breakfast: $\frac{1}{4}$ cup stewed apricots (dried), $\frac{1}{4}$ cup oatmeal, 4 tablespoons milk, 1 slice toast, $\frac{1}{4}$ teaspoon butter, 1 cup milk.

Mid-morning: $\frac{1}{3}$ cup tomato juice, $\frac{1}{2}$ teaspoon cod liver oil.

Dinner: $\frac{1}{2}$ cup cream tomato soup, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup French beans, 1 raw grated carrot sandwich, $\frac{2}{3}$ cup milk, $\frac{1}{3}$ cup tapioca with fruit.

Mid-afternoon: $\frac{2}{3}$ cup milk.

Supper: $\frac{1}{3}$ cup scrambled eggs, 1 small baked potato, $\frac{1}{4}$ cup boiled cabbage, 1 medium stalk celery, $\frac{2}{3}$ cup milk, 1 sliced orange or other fruit.

Note. The quantity of butter allowed is too little, and more egg might have been included. Otherwise the menus are good.

From The New Health Society, 39 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.

1. Secondary Girls

(a) Breakfast: Fried bacon, porridge, Grape-nuts or Force, tea, coffee, bread and butter, marmalade and syrup.

Mid-morning: Milk, hot or cold, or fresh lemonade or fruit, and biscuits.

Lunch: Stewed steak with vegetables, baked jam rolls, milk pudding.

Mid-afternoon: Bread and butter and jam.

Dinner: Soup, scrambled eggs, potatoes, stewed prunes and junket.

(b) Breakfast: Bread and milk, dripping toast, coffee, bread, syrup.

Mid-morning: Milk and biscuits.

Lunch: Baked fish, potatoes, carrots, milk pudding, stewed figs or fresh fruit.

Mid-afternoon: Bread and butter, jam, tea.

Dinner: Scrambled eggs, stewed prunes, junket, bread and cheese.

(c) Breakfast: Sardines, cold ham, porridge, Grape-nuts or Force, tea, coffee, bread and butter, marmalade and syrup.

Mid-morning: Milk, hot or cold, or fresh lemonade or fruit, and biscuits.

Lunch: Roast mutton, onion sauce, sprouts, potatoes, stewed apples, rice puddings.

Mid-afternoon: Bread and butter, syrup.

Dinner: Soup, macaroni-cheese, galantine, potatoes, queen puddings.

(d) Breakfast: Porridge and milk, bread and butter, coffee or cocoa.

Mid-morning: Milk and biscuits.

Lunch: Liver and bacon, potatoes, tomatoes, greens, baked apple and custard.

Mid-afternoon: Bread and butter, syrup or honey or lettuce.

Dinner: Soup, macaroni-cheese, potatoes.

2. State School, Boys

(a) Breakfast: Porridge and milk, tea and coffee, bread and butter, sausage and mashed potatoes.

Dinner: Roast mutton, cabbage and potatoes, rice puddings and prunes.

Mid-afternoon: Tea, bread and butter, corned beef.

Supper: Barley soup, bread.

(b) Breakfast: Porridge and milk, tea and coffee, bread and butter, bacon and egg.

Dinner: Beef steak pies, potatoes, butter beans in tomato, cranberry and apple tart, custard sauce.

Mid-afternoon: Tea, bread and butter, sardines, currant buns.

Supper: Bovril and biscuits.

(c) Breakfast: Porridge and milk, tea and coffee, bread and butter, sausage and bacon.

Dinner: Roast beef, potatoes, artichokes, white sauce, jam roly-poly.

Mid-afternoon: Tea, bread and butter, jam.

Supper: Cocoa, biscuits and cheese.

Note. All these menus would be considerably improved by allowances of fresh fruit.

The following menu has been approved by the New Health Society for a school for mentally defective boys between the ages of 8 and 16 years. The school is certified under the Board of Education and the Board of Control. As it is maintained by voluntary subscriptions it has to be conducted with rigid economy. The diet is adequate and balanced.

1. Breakfast : Bread and milk, bread and dripping, coffee.

Dinner : Roast beef, potatoes, greens, milk pudding, stewed figs.

Tea : Bread and jam, tea. For older boys, cheese ; for delicate boys, eggs.

2. Breakfast : Porridge and milk, bread and dripping, cocoa.

Dinner : Fish, potatoes, greens, suet dumplings and syrup, milk.

Tea : Bread and honey, cocoa. Cheese and eggs, as above.

3. Breakfast : Same as 1 or 2.

Dinner : Soup, potatoes, jam roll, milk. (The soup is a thick vegetable soup, generally containing a cereal.)

Tea : Bread and dripping, tea.

If possible, lettuce, tomato or celery is given once or twice a week, and cake on Sunday, occasionally during the week. Since dripping was substituted for margarine the general health has improved, and is now good. The cost per head per week for sixty-two boys and eight resident members of staff is 6s. 3d. The younger boys have twelve hours' sleep, the older ones ten and a half to eleven hours.

From Good Housekeeping, 153 Queen Victoria Street, London, E.C.4.

1. Breakfast : Porridge, milk, sugar, cold ham, bread, butter, marmalade.

Dinner : Roast beef, cabbage, potatoes, ginger pudding, custard.

Mid-afternoon : Bread, butter, celery.

Supper : Mince, bread, butter, sugar, cheese, cocoa, milk.

2. Breakfast : Porridge, milk, sugar, bacon and fried bread, bread, butter, marmalade.

Dinner : Cottage pie, potatoes, braised carrots, apple pudding and custard.

Mid-afternoon : Bread, butter, rhubarb jam, oatmeal scones.

Supper : Brawn, beetroot, cheese, cocoa, bread, butter, lettuce.

Note. These menus also are very deficient in fruit. Extra fruit can always be worked in daily—at breakfast; at lunch, after biscuits and cheese; instead of pudding, or in the form of salad of mostly fresh fruit with custard; at tea. Lemonade, made from fresh lemons, could be given at lunch on at least one day a week, or as an alternative to milk at 11 a.m. and 7 p.m. Fresh fruit could also be given at a definite time every day, say before or after breakfast, or at 4 in the afternoon ; milk could be given at 11 a.m. This plan would ensure both important foods being given daily.

There are now a few schools in England with a non-flesh diet providing all the essential elements. It therefore seems optional from the health point of view whether children should be given meat or not. From the humanitarian point of view a non-flesh diet is, of course, to be recommended and is in line with modern ideals.

Brackenhill Home School, which has furnished the menus given below, is an open-air school at Hartfield, Kent, and is well known to education officials for its extraordinarily good work in transforming delicate children into sound and sturdy ones. The diet is entirely vegetarian, and is very carefully balanced ; the children are in the open air as much as possible, and have plenty of sleep. Brackenhill has been described as the best school in England for health.

1. Breakfast : Orange, raisins, mixed nuts (especially brazils, walnuts, pine kernels), honey, $\frac{1}{2}$ pint milk, apple.

Dinner : Steamed suet pudding filled with chestnuts, vegetables and gravy, potatoes with plenty of butter, salad, if only mustard and cress, plain cheese and hard biscuit, fruit salad and cream.

Supper : Steamed Marmite custard, bread and butter, honey.

2. Breakfast : Plums, dates, mixed nuts, honey, $\frac{1}{2}$ pint cocoa, apple.

Dinner : Baked vegetable roly-poly, potatoes with butter, salad, cheese and hard biscuit, custard, apple or orange.

Supper : Rice rissoles or spaghetti, bread and butter, honey.

3. Breakfast : Pear, figs, mixed nuts, honey, $\frac{1}{2}$ point Ovaltine or Horlick's Malted Milk, apple.

Dinner : Dried peas or lentils, potatoes with butter, salad, cheese with hard biscuit, apple charlotte, raw apple or orange.

Supper : Eggs or cheese custard, bread and butter, honey.

An apple should always be eaten first thing in the morning with one or two glasses of water, and an apple or an orange last thing at night. Plenty of water between meals.



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International Notes

The Nineteenth Annual Conference of Educational Associations was held at University College, London, from 31st December 1930 to 7th January 1931, and was attended by some 2,800 teachers and others interested in education. The Conference was under the presidency of Sir Richard Gregory, D.Sc., LL.D., who opened it with an address on 'The Worth of Science'. Science, he said, has emancipated human thought from the bondage of traditional authority and has provided mankind with a new philosophy of life. When it was generally realized that ignorance and unhealthy conditions were responsible for most of the suffering and death due to disease, there would be more activity to improve our social heritage by strengthening weak constitutions to resist the attacks of pathogenic germs.

Speaking to the King Alfred School Society on 'The Type, the School, and the Parent', Mrs. Amabel Williams-Ellis declared that many children were being thrown out on to the world at the end of every school term so all-round that they were quite undecided, and almost doomed to become, at least intellectually, rolling stones. Children above the age of eleven would benefit from some specialized teaching; there was no use in educating a child to be fit for anything or nothing.

At a Joint Conference on the Teaching of Geography, it was pointed out that home teaching was the background of all geography at all stages, and stories, pictures and maps (not too crowded) were emphasized as valuable. If a better understanding of national, imperial and international problems is to be developed, future generations must have a better knowledge of geography than was possessed to-day. During the last three years 80,000 young people have gone in classes from various kinds of school to the Imperial Institute in London to be instructed in Empire geography.

Mr. J. H. Whitehouse (Bembridge School, Isle of Wight), addressing the Junior Schools Association, said that he knew of no better way of breaking down snobbery than to teach boys and girls to work with their hands. Manual activities should be retained in the curriculum right through school; drawing also should be an essential part of the school course.

The Central Council of the B.B.C. for School Broadcasting gave a demonstration of broadcasting as a means of supplementing instruction in school. Mr. Frank Roscoe, Chairman of the Executive of the Central Council, emphasized that the broadcast was intended to supplement, not supplant, the teacher. He also said that a poor loud-speaker might render completely futile or ineffectual, work that was perfect at the transmitter end.

The place of the film in education was discussed at a meeting of the School Journey Association, and the hope was expressed that the film would soon be the finest ally of the Association in destroying national prejudice, which hindered the coming of peace and goodwill. Lt.-Gen. Sir William Furse said that he

longed for the day 'when educationists will make so strong a demand for the best kind of instructional film that the best producers will consider the new market sufficiently attractive to go for'. The Association also emphasized the value of travel as an ally of peace; if the ordinary people of the world could be mixed up together, war and the contemplation of war would be impossible. Travel helps to remove prejudice, which is born of misunderstanding. The more children learn about the people of other lands the less prejudiced they will be.

The fagging system in English Public Schools was condemned by Mr. J. H. Whitehouse at the meeting of the Society for Experiment and Research in Education. Older boys may inflict corporal punishment on younger boys who are at their call, and the younger boys feel themselves snubbed, outcasts and servants. The system leads frequently to cruelty unless it is carefully controlled and supervised, and means a great intellectual and spiritual loss to the boys. Mr. Whitehouse suspected that headmasters themselves were the unwilling victims of the fagging system, for the tradition was so strong, and the whole influence surrounding many of the old English Public Schools so hostile to changes.

Sir Francis Goodenough, speaking to the Modern Language Association on 'The Importance of Modern Languages to Modern Commerce', said that though the relative value of French, German and Spanish was difficult to assess in constant terms, the general trend of business opinion is that German is most valuable for Central and Northern Europe, French for Southern Europe and Northern Africa, and Spanish for South American markets. The importance of Portuguese should not be overlooked. Instruction in modern languages should be instruction in the living language of a living people and should not mean the mental test of grammar and the study of literature.

Speaking to the Medical Officers of Schools Association, Dr. A. G. Maitland-Jones said that nine hours of sleep was not enough for any school child, and that though insomnia was extremely rare in school children, artificial insomnia was sometimes produced as a result of too little sleep.

The annual meeting of the English Section of the New Education Fellowship was held on 1st January. The Annual Report showed steady progress. Professor Sir Percy Nunn was elected President for the second year. Mr. Henry Morris (Cambridge) was added to the list of Vice-Presidents and the Committee was re-elected. Sir Philip Hartog later presided over a well-attended conference called to discuss the subject of 'The Efficiency of the First School Examinations and their Relation to Matriculation'. The leading speakers were Mr. C. W. Bailey, M.A. (Holt School, Liverpool), Miss Frost, M.A. (Newland High School, Hull), Miss Haig Brown, M.A. (Oxford High School), Mr. S. H. Shurrock, M.A. (Matriculation and School Examinations Council, University of London). Other

speakers were Mr. Spikes, M.A. (National Union of Teachers), Professor Cavenagh (Swansea), Mr. W. F. Witton (Assistant Masters' Association), Mr. E. Holden (Institute of Handicraft Teachers), Miss Scott-Moncrieff (Training College Association), Mr. B. C. Wallis, B.Sc. (Chief Examiner, London County Council), and Mr. S. Galen (N.U.T.). Sir Philip Hartog, in summing up the discussion, said: 'There are so many divergent views to reconcile, even on the purpose of secondary education, and the issues are so important for the future of the nation, that I do not think that anything short of a Royal Commission would lead us to a real harmony of views or anything approaching it. What is encouraging is that people are thinking hard, and we have had some of the results of their thinking in this gathering to-day, on which we may well congratulate ourselves.'

At the Nursery School Association meeting, Professor Jean Piaget (University of Geneva) gave an open lecture entitled 'The Birth of Intelligence in the Child'. An intensely interested audience listened as he traced the relation between thought and action with illuminating illustrations drawn from his observation of his own child. The lecture was well attended and greatly appreciated. The members' meeting previously held was devoted to the discussion of 'Essentials in Method and Organization in Nursery Schools'. Miss de Lissa presided, and opened the discussion, which turned chiefly on the interpretation of 'freedom for the child', and revealed considerable differences of outlook. There was clearly a demand for further opportunity for discussion of the important points raised.

The Home and School Council (11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1) has recently appointed Miss M. Wainman as Office and Records Secretary, and will shortly appoint in addition a General and Field Secretary.

The Council, whose objects are 'to provide a central organization for societies and individuals working to promote co-operation between parents and teachers, and the study of the child, with a view to strengthening such work and extending it in whatever direction extension is required', recently sent a *questionnaire* to over 800 schools in the London area, which evoked considerable interest in the work.

Inquiries are continually being received from all parts of the country and abroad, from parents, teachers and others interested, and requests from Parent-Teacher Associations and similar organizations are frequently made for speakers upon topics of educational, psychological and general interest. These inquiries prove that there is a great demand for the knowledge of experts to be made readily available for the enlightenment and guidance of all concerned with the education and welfare—physical, mental, social and spiritual—of children and adolescents.

The Walter Hines Page Travelling Scholarships and two scholarships at the Chautauqua Summer School in the State of New York will be offered by the Education Committee of the English-Speaking Union in 1931, to enable women teachers to visit America.

These scholarships are of the value of £100, and complete hospitality is offered. To meet the remaining travelling and incidental expenses the teacher need only provide a further £50.

In 1931 also, two additional Page scholarships have been offered respectively by the National Union of Teachers and the Association of Assistant Mistresses, and will be awarded by the English-Speaking Union. These scholarships, which are open to members of these two associations only, provide the same American hospitality and opportunities as the Page Scholarships, and are to the value of £50 each. It should be noted that the National Union of Teachers' Scholarship is open to men as well as women teachers.

Chautauqua is one of the most interesting developments in America in the field of popular education, and the school consists of courses delivered by leading American professors and competent authorities on almost every subject. The scholarships cover the cost of lectures and classes, and complete hospitality for six weeks. Travelling and incidental expenses must be provided by the holders, and are estimated at not more than £80. After the Summer School the English-Speaking Union of the United States offers two weeks' further hospitality to the holders of these scholarships, so that they may visit some of the interesting cities of the Eastern States.

The Page Scholarships are open both to secondary and elementary women teachers between the ages of 25 and 45, and the Chautauqua to the same category of teacher without limitation of age. Applications should reach the Committee not later than Saturday, 14th February. All inquiries should be addressed to the Secretary, Education Committee, English-Speaking Union, Dartmouth House, 37 Charles Street, Berkeley Square, London, W.1.

In the death of Mr. Alexander Devine, Founder and Headmaster of Clayesmore School, near Winchester, education has suffered a severe loss. Interested for many years in boys, known as the 'friend of boys', he founded Clayesmore in 1896 in order to put into practice some of the principles by which he thought the Public School system of England might be reformed. The function of Clayesmore was to break new ground, and many ideas which were new when the school first put them into practice, are now generally accepted. From the first Clayesmore set its face against that early specialization which is directed at the passing of examinations, and up to the age of fifteen the education has been the same for all boys. Mr. Devine was a great believer in manual work, the practice of which has grown of late years in other schools; and from Clayesmore came the plan of having a 'middle school' for boys from thirteen and a half to fifteen—a plan now under consideration in many Public Schools. An intelligent interest in foreign affairs, in international relations, and in social questions at home, is always cultivated in the school.

The 1930 Index of the *New Era* may be obtained from the Editorial Offices, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the "New Era".

How can I prevent my pupils from 'gobbling' their food, and so producing indigestion and other troubles?

This is a real problem, intensified by the keen excitement and interest of modern school life, and the restless desire to get on to the next thing so characteristic of our age. Like others, it must be attacked positively rather than negatively; the precept 'Don't gobble' is of little use.

To senior children the advantage of slow eating and its effect on the mechanism of the body should be fully explained, and the example of a few careful eaters dispersed among the younger pupils will tend to slow down the general pace and to make slower eating 'fashionable' in the school—a most important factor in reform.

Interesting quotation and other games played during meals may, if not overdone, be of service; but it is undesirable to force the brain to work too actively during mastication, and the element of competitive anxiety should always be discouraged. A humorous method of attack sometimes helps. One may place in the dining-room a copy of the placard reproducing Professor Walter Raleigh's verse—

'Eat slowly; only men in rags

And gluttons old in sin

Mistake themselves for carpet-bags

And tumble victuals in.'

Above all, the family habit of cheerful general conversation is the best of aids to digestion, and by stimulating this habit, and unobtrusively preventing a reversion to 'shop' or to personal 'ragging' a double object is served—the formation of a habit of slower eating, and a valuable training in social sense.

Should children be allowed to rise from table as they finish their meal, or is community sense better developed by a simultaneous rising followed by grace?

There is much to be said on both sides, and a further correspondence on the subject is invited. Separate rising allows for differences of pace in eating (see last answer) and facilitates the leisurely use of the lavatory. On the other hand it may encourage haste and even insufficiency of nourishment in children who are little interested in their food, and greediness in others who linger at table in order to secure last pieces of cake without the observation and perhaps scornful criticism of companions. The value of a communal grace is undoubted, but its purpose may perhaps be sufficiently served by one such grace, spoken at the beginning of the meal.

This interesting inquiry also raises the whole question of children's 'table manners', which are now often left to the boarding school and entirely neglected

at home. Beautiful eating should be as carefully cultivated as beautiful speech and writing. In one school a silver mug, to be competed for among juniors and held each term by the child who has improved most in table amenities, is found to be a useful stimulus.

What should be the average cost of a girl's boarding school uniform?

It is easier to say what the cost is than what it should be. There is great variety, even among the best schools; in some a complete school equipment (including games tunic, boots, and so forth, but not games implements) can be obtained for £10 or £12; in others it rises to seven or eight times that figure.

As a rule, the school which demands too elaborate an outfit should be distrusted, partly on account of the obvious unpracticality of providing many garments for a growing child, partly because the emphasis laid upon this side of school life seems to postulate an unreal standard of values. In these difficult days economy (which can fortunately be combined with simplicity and beauty) should be closely studied; and some schools have solved the problem of providing a uniform which is pleasing to the eye, suitable to different types of colouring, durable, and inexpensive.

My little boy of ten always has good reports from his school, but is naughty, mischievous, and a general nuisance at home. Can you explain the discrepancy?

This state of things is not unusual, and may result from various causes. Many children, especially if highly strung and nervous, find it easier to behave well with strangers than with those who know and care for them best; the parent's anxiety for the child's welfare and behaviour communicates itself, and causes fretful irritability.

Again, few parents take into consideration the amount of trouble, foresight, expert knowledge and even expenditure, which are necessary to keep a child happily occupied, especially if he lacks the companionship of brothers and sisters near his own age. Unless a child has plenty to do, and ample material with which to do it, he is bound to occupy himself in ways unpleasing to grown-up people.

The fact that your little son is good when at school shows that he has some kind of difficulty in adjusting himself to home conditions, and it will be for his happiness as well as yours to seek and discover a remedy.

You will find many useful hints on this question of a child's adjustment to his surroundings in Dorothy Canfield's stories—*The Brimming Cup*, *The Deepening Stream*, and *Her Son's Wife*.

MARGARET L. LEE

(Principal, Wychwood School for Girls, Oxford)

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THE MONTESSORI PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE (*Culverwell*) *Bell & Sons*

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Book Reviews

Intellectual Growth in Young Children. By Susan Isaacs. Routledge, London. 12s. 6d.

This volume is the first of a trilogy; it is shortly to be followed by *Social Development in Young Children*, and later by *Individual Histories*. The basis for the whole work is the series of very full and careful records taken during the three years of the Malting House Experiment in Cambridge. To talk, as some people do, of the failure of the Malting House School; to scoff at a special staff of recorders to note down in detail the remarks and activities of small children, shows a very imperfect conception of the functions of a school. It is indeed due to this misconception that researches into the psychology of children have largely been left to the clinical psychologists, whose data must necessarily be sporadic and partial, and are too often gathered *ad hoc*, i.e. in the support of one particular theory. The work of both Piaget and Adler, valuable and suggestive though it is, comes under this criticism. There are two, and only two, possible fields for the gathering of accurate and objective data on the interests and activities, intellectual and social, of normal children. These fields are the school and the home; the ideal is a co-operation between the two. But any kind of experimental attitude is still rare, and the few schools in Europe and America which do undertake the troublesome and expensive business of record and research need all the encouragement they can get. 'A life without questions is not worth living', said Socrates, and a school which is not continually questioning its own practice and its own theoretical assumptions in the light of fresh data is not properly a school at all.

The present volume is divided into a theoretical analysis under the headings of Discovery, Reasoning and Thought, followed by numerous extracts from the records themselves. At the end there is a very interesting Appendix by Mr. Nathan Isaacs on Children's 'Why' Questions—not the least valuable part of the book. It is Mrs. Isaacs' contention on the basis of this evidence that there is a normal and specifically intellectual curiosity in children even below the age of seven, and that this and the reasoning power of children have been much under-rated to the detriment of educational practice. Our curricula suffer—even in progressive schools—from such fallacies as that small children cannot reason, or that they must at a certain age level be interested in primitive man and early cultures. Widely criticized among psychologists themselves, these views persist in schools for lack of effective knowledge to break them down. Yet in actuality, as Mrs. Isaacs shows from other evidence besides her own, 'the average course of mental development is smooth and continuous'; differing in individual cases, 'there are no general breaks or crises at any point'. Reasoning powers of a high order are shown by children of four and under; even a capacity to deal with complete abstractions, normally placed at the 14 to 16 age level, in reality occurs much earlier.

The root of the whole matter is in the question of interest, and it is over this point that schools have to stop continually and re-consider their own intellectual equipment: how much we are still tied up with out-of-date pre-conceptions and methods; how far we go out, as the Malting House certainly did, to stimulate and meet the intellectual curiosity of children as individuals.

On the technique of investigations such as these, Mrs. Isaacs has some shrewd remarks about the position of an adult in relation to a group of children. There is no such thing as a passive observer, and teachers must realize this. To the child, the passive adult either endorses what is going on, or disapproves, and the latter feeling brings a tension with all the psychological effects of guilt. It is far better to accept an active relation with a group of children and either act as cover to another adult who may record as unobtrusively as possible, or make notes oneself from memory some time after.

There are few criticisms to make of this stimulating book. It is possible that the material might have been rather better arranged so as to avoid a good deal of repetition. The theoretical analysis is sometimes a little too closely packed for easy comprehension, since it would be good that this book should come into the hands of the *average* teacher of small children. The high mental ratio of the children recorded (average m.r. 131) must also be taken into account in considering some of the conclusions presented. But these are details.

Gestalt Psychology. By Wolfgang Köhler. G. Bell & Sons, London. 15s.

This book by one of the leaders of the *Gestalt* school of psychology is an attempt to apply their principles, so far mainly restricted to sensory visual experience, to other sensory fields, and to such fundamental problems as association, learning, reproduction and behaviour.

The opposition between those psychologists who rely mainly on introspection or direct experience and those who do not, is discussed in the two chapters on Behaviourism and Introspectionism. The viewpoint of the Behaviourist school is criticized in an adequate and interesting manner; it is doubtful, however, whether the introspectionist of Köhler's chapter exists to-day.

Throughout the book the 'naïve observer' is lauded at the expense of the scientific man who for Köhler only finds 'the rare and unusual experiences' he discusses, when 'he assumes the special attitude which, fortunately for him, he does not assume except in the laboratory'. Nevertheless, later, in the chapter on Behaviour, he confesses that things are not always what they seem—that the objective behaviour is not always indicative of the inner mental state, and lays stress on the necessity for trained observers who will bring to this 'naïve' observation the benefits of scientific training.

The *Gestalt* theory itself is clearly and logically expounded in three very interesting chapters—Dynamics opposed to the Machine Theory, Sensory Organization, and the Properties of Organized Wholes.

In the chapters on Association and Reproduction, a theory of sensory dynamics is applied to problems of learning and recall; the concept of association, as exemplified in the classical experiments with nonsense syllables and in the laws of similarity and contiguity, being replaced by a theory of organization dependent upon the relative properties of stimuli. These chapters are particularly suggestive for educational theory. Köhler stresses the importance of organization for learning as being the decisive factor in the formation of associations and the value for mental work of a well-organized total field in which the work, and the attitude of the self towards the work, form one functional whole.

The final chapter on insight is difficult and controversial. It leads to a theory of direct dynamical determination, the development of each phase of events growing out of its predecessors and depending on their concrete nature.

The New Education in Europe. By F. W. Roman. Routledge, London. 18s.

This is a second edition of the well-known book which appeared in 1923. The chapters on Great Britain, France, and Germany have been revised, and other chapters added on the Scandinavian countries, Austria, Russia, and Italy. It cannot be said that the revision of the earlier chapters has been very thorough: they contain errors that should not have been allowed to pass into a second edition; and there are serious misstatements (e.g. it is said of Scotland that 'by a law which becomes effective on 1st April 1931, the compulsory school age has been raised to fifteen years'). That sort of thing throws doubt on the reliability of the other chapters; and a book of this sort is of little value unless its facts are beyond suspicion. An account of Russian conditions will, of course, be read with interest mingled with doubt; but information about other countries (except possibly Italy) should be obtained without difficulty. The author is moreover too much inclined to sing the glories of American democracy and to bewail European indulgence in alcohol and tobacco; we could have spared his exhortations in a book that is primarily a compendium of facts. Still, there is much shrewd observation, and an enormous amount of information that readers will find useful if they check it by other authorities. To a third edition, Professor Roman may be able to devote more than six months for 'a renewal of former contacts and observation at first hand of the recent transformations' in two great countries like Italy and Russia.

After Two Thousand Years. By E. Lowes Dickinson. Allen & Unwin, London. 6s.

This dialogue between Plato and Philaethes, a modern young man, who have met in the Elysian fields, would make stimulating material for a discussion group of young students.

The first part describes in a detached and provocative way many of our modern circumstantialities, poverty, equality, population, war, education, Government by the Press and by religion, and considers 'whether it is possible that democracy should be a co-operation of all to transform society to something better'.

The second part deals with essential Goods, Beauty, Knowledge of Truth, and Love. The discussion turns to superstitions and myths, to the idea of Immortality and the Divine. The young man concludes 'that religion no more than philosophy had revealed the absolute Good'.

Plato then takes command of the discussion and suggests to the young man a new myth 'which will comfort him when he returns to the difficulties of earth, yet not divert him from his task'.

The new mythologist, foretold by Plato, would be neither a priest nor a philosopher but 'a poet and a man of science'. 'What is beautiful he would sing, what is true he would know and what lies beyond he would divine'. This mythologist, who is both poet and man of science, invites Philaethes to look beyond the world of sense sung by the poet and the world of abstractions measured by the man of science, to contemplate for one brief enlightened moment the 'long ascent of life into the heaven of heavens' impelled by an august purpose. He leaves in the young man's hand the clue which will help him to follow the gleam, however wavering, the clue given by imagination, will and love.

Eleutheros: or the Future of the Public Schools.

By J. F. Roxburgh. Kegan Paul, London. 2s. 6d. This is a very satisfactory book—not because of its writing, the prose is dull with the exception of one or two eloquent and memorable sentences—it is no more than its author calls it, 'a desultory dialogue'. It is satisfactory because of the personality of the author which shines through it. Many perplexed parents will feel, as they read, that here, at least, is a headmaster to whose care they could with confidence entrust their sons. He sees life from many aspects and he does not fall a victim either to the Charybdis of traditional education or to the Scylla, with its waving necks of unrelated enthusiasms, which is so deadly to our progressives. In his view the Public Schools are a great inheritance with an ever-widening influence. 'Even if they do go under, the ideas they have tried to work out will certainly survive them—just as the idea of chivalry survived the institutions which developed it.' But he admits the force of the criticisms levelled against them, and after considering the political forces which threaten their very existence in the future, he concludes, 'Our job is to deserve to survive'.

The book contains much wisdom, much understanding—and best of all, from a schoolmaster—not a little true humility. It is brightened, too, towards the end by some flashes of real vision. Everyone interested in the Public Schools and their future, and that must surely mean everyone interested in English education will enjoy and profit by reading *Eleutheros*.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

*The Victorian Age
the Modern World
and the Arts*

English society in the nineteenth century sought to control emotion by a system of taboos. In practice it succeeded only in isolating the stronger emotions from the main stream of life, thus unwittingly preventing them from being educated in the process of living, and leaving them, raw and untutored, to exist side by side with the 'good form' it required of its members.

The twentieth century has adopted another attitude. It has decided to run the risk of letting the emotions come into the open, hoping to counteract their tendency to upset the nice balance of social behaviour by schooling and training them as we do the intellect and will. This new attitude has completely altered society's view of the arts, and in consequence a new generation of creative artists has grown up in England, superior to any this country has known since the seventeenth century. What a change since 1880!

The revival in music and drama is particularly marked. The Continent is still unaware of the fact that England to-day possesses some of the world's great composers. In the dramatic field recognition has come earlier. Shaw and Galsworthy are as well known abroad as they are in their own country. With this renewal in the line of the great British dramatists has gone a renewal of the intellectual interest in the drama shown by the general public, which has led to the foundation of nearly 3,000 amateur dramatic societies throughout the kingdom.

Drama in Schools What does this mean for the school? It means that the time has come when the arts may be accorded their rightful place in the curriculum. The violent opposition that, on the ground of morals

or class distinctions, would have met any practical advance in this direction fifty years ago, is no longer to be expected. An older generation, it is true, represented too often, alas! by head teachers and on education committees, may still feel a deep distrust of the arts, and of drama in particular. But the younger members of society who to-day form the majority of the parents of our school children, undoubtedly realize what a valuable part dramatic work can play in school life.

It is time, therefore, for teachers to ask themselves what use they can make of this new field in school work in order to secure a more balanced development for the child as a whole. It is no longer necessary for schools to ignore one-third of a child's education, the part concerned with artistic self-expression and the appreciation of the arts. Singing has long had a small niche in the curriculum, but music has yet to establish itself as a natural outlet for children's creative activities. The drama has not found even as much recognition as music. Schools are not ashamed of its being absent from their time-tables. And yet it is a more universal means of expression than music. Every child plays and would continue to do so in a more and more adult fashion up to the end of its school life, did we not almost completely neglect this universal means of cultural education.

A New Type of Dramatic Work Thirty years ago society and its producers and actors considered the drama merely as a means of entertainment. It was

but natural, then, that the school should follow suit, and treat the end of term play as a 'frill' to the serious work of the school. This is still the attitude of most school teachers, although quite a different point of view has for long been cur-

rent among serious students of the drama throughout the world. What drama might be was first made clear to us by the work of Adolphe Appia and Gordon Craig. For Appia the drama was the 'body in action', and the basis of all dramatic training the use of bodily movement to convey emotion. Improvisation, the inventiveness of the individual, was an essential element in the learning process. In fact, imagination and initiative were as essential to the individuals making up the theatrical whole as they were to the original dramatist. We are fortunate in being able to include an article by M. Jean Mercier, one of Appia's pupils, describing his method of training. This is as applicable to dramatic work in schools as it is to the professional studio.

The same emphasis upon the value of using the imagination in acting and in play-making is to be noted in the interviews with Edith Craig (Gordon Craig's sister) and with Ellen Van Volkenberg that also appear in this issue.

These articles represent the modern dramatic artist's attitude towards the stage, one that is so like that of the best teachers that it should make a particular appeal to all those working in schools. These two articles also stress the value of dancing in connection with drama. Those who had the privilege of seeing *The Son of Jochebed* produced last summer with children from the Caldecott Community, will know how wonderfully expressive the combination of Dalcroze work with dramatics can be. But not all schools are so fortunate as to have an Annie Beck to make of a few children in bathing costumes a flock of Moses's sheep, or to seat Pharaoh on his throne in a pose like that of the lovely Kuan-Yin of the British Museum.

*The Value of this
New Type of Work
in Schools*

If we adopt this new attitude towards the drama, and are ready to take it seriously and to develop all the creative elements that it possesses, what can



Moses and the Sheep, from 'The Son of Jochebed'

[Caldecott Community, Goff's Oak,
Hertfordshire

it mean for the school? The articles contained in this issue offer an answer to this question and demonstrate the many ways in which dramatic work can help in strengthening and fertilizing the ordinary curriculum. But they do more than this, for, one after another, they show the direct part it can play in the emotional development of the individual child. It may be in place here to list the various ways in which, in the opinion of the writers, drama can be of value in the school.

First of all, considered as an emotional outlet only, it brings to life the otherwise apathetic child. It is also a natural incentive, since every child sees the need of working hard to make a dramatic performance a success. It is a training in co-operation, since it enforces a natural discipline. Furthermore, it can be made a training in observation, as in its first stage acting is imitation, and imitation demands accurate observation. It is also an education in understanding and sympathy, since it forces us to imagine how we would feel in other circumstances, and how the world goes on outside of the narrow circle in which we are accustomed to move. It has a value as a natural setting for speech training

and the development of the powers of self-expression. And lastly, it can act as a central focussing point for the whole art-work of schools. It is almost an ideal artistic project, since dancing, music, design, poetry and elocution,

can each be made to contribute its own particular share to a successful production.

This list is a long one and contains only what has stood the test of experience. In the face of this evidence, how long shall we continue to treat dramatic work as a side-show, a quite unessential addition to the real work of the classroom? We need a Copernican revolution which will prove to us that it can be made one of the central educative influences in school life. Only then shall we be ready to satisfy the cravings of one of the most important sides of the child's nature.

WYATT RAWSON



Pharoah Seated, from 'The Son of Jochebed'
[Caldecott Community, Goff's Oak, Hertfordshire]

to Dramatic Work in Schools. Professor Sir Percy Nunn will preside at this Conference, which is being held under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship at Bedford College, London, from July 24th to July 30th, 1931 (See page 110).

Edith Craig on Amateur Dramatics

MISS EDITH CRAIG, who is a member of the Council of the British Drama League, and who takes an active interest in the promotion of amateur acting in villages and country districts, as well as in the special Easter and Summer Schools for the training of amateur players and play producers organized by the League, very kindly granted an interview recently to the *New Era*. Miss Craig emphasized the great advantage that the school and the community would gain if they were brought into closer relation through the medium of play-producing and acting. She also stressed the need for dramatic work to become part of the ordinary school curriculum, instead of being taken up, as is usually the case, as a side line because a school principal or member of staff happens to have special interest in plays and acting.

Which is the teacher generally in charge of dramatic work in a school? It is the English teacher; and the tendency is to limit acting to English literature and history. But, asked Miss Craig, why not combine drama with country dancing or elocution, both subjects now being taught in an increasing number of schools? The teacher of country dancing or of elocution is not generally a member of the school staff; it should be quite feasible to give dramatic work, elocution and country dancing into the charge of one person, trained in these three forms of dramatic expression; to include this unified study in all curricula, and to correlate it to other school subjects. The gain to the

individual child and to the school would be great, and the classes could then be brought into close touch with the adult amateur dramatic societies springing up now so quickly throughout Great Britain.

In country districts the Women's Institutes are everywhere flourishing, and have taken up dramatic work with zest. No better opportunity could exist than is thus given for parents, themselves interested in the subject, to work in

with their children in school, and to apply some of their own experience in helping the school with its dramatic work. A little enterprise, a little initiative, willingness on the part of teachers to take up the study of dramatics seriously, intelligent co-operation between parents and teachers, and this vital branch of education would soon be playing its valuable part in rounding off ordinary school life. And in the meantime, while this more ideal way of teaching dramatics is being developed, much could be done by a teacher who is good at diction, has some knowledge of production, and has had a little training.

Teaching children to act is the easiest thing

in the world, said Miss Craig. They readily absorb dramatic work, for it is their natural expression. And their imagination is keen, their resourcefulness almost unlimited. Miss Craig spoke of a big show she staged with children at the Palace Theatre for the benefit of the Children's Country Holiday Fund, when they acted the Old Woman who Lived in a Shoe. Each child was a character from a



Ellen Terry and Edith Craig [Copyright, Herbert Speed, York]

nursery rhyme or story, with his own individual little part to create and to play, and his part in the production as a whole. In his eagerness, one child was too quick, and an empty moment was threatened before the next child could be ready. On her own initiative, a small girl darted out from the wings, tripped to the footlights, curtsied, did a few steps, and tripped back again, saving the situation. Afterwards, Miss Craig said to her: 'Whatever made you think of doing that?' 'Why,' was the surprised reply, 'Someone had to do *something*; we couldn't leave them with *nothing*. So I just did.' Forty children took part in this play; Miss Craig gathered them all together and told them what they had to do; there was one rehearsal, one dress rehearsal, and then the performance, which went without a hitch. The youngest child was two years old!

Miss Craig instanced the case of a school at Clifton in the West of England where the English mistress teaches literature largely through the medium of plays, thus combining with her subject the teaching of dramatic literature. The school has built a little theatre, and does splendid work. Miss Craig also spoke of Wales, where she has just lately been. Forty years ago novels and the theatre were taboo; now, as a result of her work and encouragement, great keenness exists for dramatic productions, and though this is almost entirely confined to adults, very little enterprise would be necessary to bring the drama into the schools and to give the children the incalculable advantages of this method of self-expression.

Turning to the question of scenery for school dramatics, Miss Craig said she thought a school, before investing in any special materials, should find out what it has that might do and see how much could be made out of it. The painting of scenery is a very special art, and should not be attempted by amateurs, who will get far more effective results from very simple materials. If the walls are bad and cannot easily be made suitable, plain curtains are necessary, and are enough. A good deal should be left to the imagination of the players and of the audience. The players themselves will readily imagine the kind of scenery necessary for a specific play, and will produce the desired effect on the audience better with no scenery other

than curtains than with more ambitious painted scenery that, because it is bad, consciously or unconsciously hampers them in their interpretation and confuses the audience.

The same rule applies to properties. These also should be quite simple. For all practical purposes, three-ply wood, a clamp, a saw and a chisel are useful. Wonders can be worked with these and with the help of an artistic man-of-all-work—a being more often latent in the school caretaker or gardener than is generally guessed or supposed. At the Easter School of the British Drama League this year an artist is to show how properties can be made from papier mâché.

And again with lighting—the simpler the medium the better. Quite good effects can be produced with one magic lantern at the back of the hall, or with a cinema lamp—though, of course, two or three lamps are better than only one. In her own Barn Theatre Miss Craig uses the lamps of her car. The thing to remember is that the light should be at some little distance from the stage; it is then diffused and less glaring for the players, and the effect from the point of view of the audience is much better than when the lights are near.

An important point is that there should be no more furniture on the stage than is absolutely necessary for the play. The stages on which amateurs play have usually very little space and only the absolute essentials should be put on. Here again the imagination of the audience should be appealed to—an art in which the Chinese and the Japanese are expert. Position and attitude can be used to indicate anything that exists in the imagination of the player, and can therefore be visualized by the audience.

This doing without things and making what is at hand serve, not only appeal to a child player's imagination, but draw out all his dexterity and power of representation. A child is in his element in making believe. Left to himself, with very simple material and very little guidance, the average child can act the picture in his mind and sketch it for his audience in a way that for vividness and effect far surpasses what can be achieved by the average adult. One has only to watch children at their every-day games to realize their cleverness in representation, and to realize how easy it is to

help them to turn out a first-class little play with hardly more than a curtain, a chair and a magic lantern.

With regard to the plays themselves, it is not necessary to have actual written plays. Bits from books can be done in mime, and the children will work out their own action. Blake's *Songs of Innocence* lend themselves readily to dramatic action. Shakespeare, of course, is always at hand. Children love his plays and his characters, and love acting and interpreting them themselves.

The British Drama League conducts Easter and Summer Schools, varying in length from one day to a fortnight, in various centres throughout the country. They are normally adapted for the training of amateur producers and players, though special schools can be organized to suit individual applicants. Teachers interested in dramatic work, or who have charge of it, would not find it difficult to attend these schools, which give a practical training invaluable for work with children. Since its foundation in 1919 the League has founded or affiliated over 1,600 independent societies, many in villages and industrial districts, others attached to educational bodies, schools and universities. Parents and teachers interested in dramatic work of any description for adults or for

children, could not do better than write for information to the Honorary Secretary of the Drama League, 8 Adelphi Terrace, London, W.C.2.

Miss Craig hopes that Smallhythe Place, the projected Memorial to her mother, Ellen Terry, at Tentenden, will in time become a place where people can study the drama and the history of the drama. As it is in the country, they would be able to read and study in quiet, and rooms could be obtained in the village. One room in the museum is set apart as a library where, as well as books on the theatre, there are books marked by Ellen Terry and by Henry Irving—works of the greatest value to actors and students. Miss Craig hopes to use the Barn Theatre for people to have practical training. So far the sum of £1,000 has been collected towards the establishing of the Memorial, but sufficient capital to yield an annual income of £200 is necessary if the Memorial is to be kept up as it should be. Considering that so few years have elapsed since Ellen Terry's death, and that Keats' house and Carlyle's house were acquired as memorials only twenty-one and thirty-one years after their death, Miss Craig feels that a good beginning has been made towards the establishing of the Ellen Terry Memorial.

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 112

CREATIVE MIND

A BOOK OF MARIONETTE PLAYS

THE SMALL STAGE AND ITS EQUIPMENT

Books Received

A LIGHT TO LIGHTEN THE GENTILES : *A Christmas Interlude. Religious Drama Series. Written and first produced by Inval St. Hilary's School. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London. 2s. 6d.*

THE BOOK SHOP. *A Book Review presenting a progressive series of books from Kindergarten to Grade Eight (13 years old). Nine Scenes with incidental Music, in Tableau, pantomime, and with sound. By Rosa Lila Sasloe. H. W. Wilson Co., 958 University Avenue, New York City. 50c. post free.*

BROADCASTS. *Thinking Ahead ; the Place of Reflection in Civilization. By Prof. A. E. Heath. 3d. The Nation's Housekeeping. By Sir E. Hilton Young. 2d. The B.B.C., Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2.*

SOME ASPECTS OF EDUCATION IN THE U.S.A. *By K. S. Cunningham and G. E. Phillips. Issued by the Australian Council for Educational Research. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., and University Press, Melbourne, Australia. 2s. 6d.*

INDIVIDUAL EDUCATION. *By C. Fenner and A. G. Paull. Issued by the Australian Council for Educational Research. Publishers as above. 2s.*

Making Shakespeare Live

ARCHIBALD FLOWER, M.A.

Chairman of the Trustees and Guardians of Shakespeare's Birthplace, and of the Council of the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre

A SHORT time ago one of the boys at a well-known Public School stated publicly that he and others high up in the school were bored with the study of English, and blamed Shakespeare for this. I could sympathize with him, for in my own school days, many years ago, I suffered the same boredom. Shakespeare was rammed down our throats and we were made to parse, analyse and dissect all the difficult passages, instead of being first encouraged to enjoy the writer's wonderful gift of clothing a fine story in perfect English.

Danger of boredom can be avoided if at the start young people are helped to understand something of the very human individuality of the boy and the man Shakespeare and how he came to write his plays. We can tell them that he was an attractive country boy, full of life, up to all sorts of mischief, making love to all the girls, poking fun in a gay way at some of his elders. As a young man he left Stratford-upon-Avon to try to better his position in London.

His early days in Warwickshire had taught him to love country life and sport, and he was endowed with a wonderful memory, a marvellous power of observation, an extraordinary understanding of human nature, with boundless energy and capacity for hard work. These gifts, together with his powers of expression, might have been concentrated on writing sonnets—a fashionable vogue in Elizabethan days. If that had happened, how few would ever have become acquainted with the author!

Fortunately for posterity, by a happy accident, his energies were diverted to the writing of plays. During his boyhood at Stratford-upon-Avon he would have had many opportunities of seeing the troupes of players which visited the town. Stratford's records give the dates of such visits and the names of those noblemen under whose patronage the actors were playing. Some of these visits took place during the time that the poet's father—John Shakespeare—was

Bailiff, or Mayor, of the town.

Anyone with such a gift for telling good stories must have had a great capacity for making friends, and some of these actors must have found this young man very good company. When he reached London it is only natural that he should have gone to the theatre to try to find some of those actor friends, and ask them if there was any odd job he could do to earn a living. They must have welcomed their friend and given him the necessary start which was so soon to prove profitable to them and to him.

I like to picture him, perhaps playing some small part and feeling within himself that the play might be so much improved, and making suggestions. There was no such thing as copyright in those days; anyone was at liberty to take a play written by someone else and alter it. I imagine this young man sitting in some attic, taking one of these old plays, infusing into it his own vivid imagination and power of expression and bringing it back to the company in its new form. This complete manuscript would be carefully locked up, only their own parts with their cues handed out to each actor, for there was no law to prevent another company from 'pirating' a play. A few rehearsals, and then, to the astonishment of the company, they found they had a winner which filled the theatre.

The main point we should remember in trying to get the right approach to Shakespeare is that he wrote these plays, not as high-brow stuff for intellectuals, but as good stories which would be understood and appreciated by the people who attended the theatre.

Who were these people? Were they exclusively the educated and cultured of the times? Not at all. The population of London in Shakespeare's day was only 100,000. Many of the educated and wealthy who controlled London were bitterly opposed to the theatre and all its works. The theatres in which Shakespeare acted and wrote his plays stood across the



Gardens belonging to the Governors of the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre, and Holy Trinity Church where Shakespeare is buried, Stratford-upon-Avon
View taken from the top of the Theatre

Thames, and those who attended had either to walk across the bridge or cross by boat. None the less we know that these theatres were thronged, mainly by the common people who were largely without education. It is certain that these people would not have filled the theatre, would not have stood for hours with no roof above them, or sat on hard benches, unless they clearly understood what the actors were saying and thoroughly enjoyed it. Remember that in all probability the majority of those who saw the plays in Shakespeare's day could not read or write. If their introduction to him had been only through the printed page they would never have come under his spell.

And the same applies to-day. Let us try to bring our young people under his influence by enabling them to see his plays well acted and by encouraging them to act the plays themselves—the love of reading them will follow.

In London the main stronghold for Shakespeare has been for many years—as it was in his own day—south of the Thames at the 'Old

Vic', where his plays have been given regularly, while for many months together none were being given in the West End. Now, happily, this is being remedied by the re-opening of Sadler's Wells Theatre.

At Stratford-upon-Avon the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre has been in existence for over fifty years; the Festivals have grown from one week to sixteen. Visitors to the town this year between April 13th and May 16th and from June 29th to September 12th will have the opportunity of seeing no less than eight different plays each week.

The strong grip which the plays exercise on the imagination of youth has been strikingly evidenced by the steady growth of camps at Stratford-upon-Avon during the festivals to which boys and girls come from all parts of Great Britain. After a conference on New Ideals in Education held in Stratford shortly after the war, Dr. Morton—Headmaster of the Boys' Modern School at Leeds—brought some hundreds of his boys for a week during the summer and a

field was placed at his disposal for a camp. Next year other schools followed suit, and representatives of the Board of Education made an inspection.

They found the boys deriving happiness and benefit from the camp life, able to bathe in the river, and even go to the theatre by boat, eager to attend as many plays as possible. From teachers they heard how the interest in the study of Shakespeare and English History had been quickened by this experience and how this had become a pleasure instead of a drudgery, and the Board of Education passed a resolution that a week spent in camp at Stratford-upon-Avon attending the plays would count for 'grant' in the same way that this week would have counted if spent in the usual school curriculum. The dramatic instinct is latent in everyone, particularly in the young, and the development of that instinct is, without doubt, of the greatest value in character building.

To hear Shakespeare's unsurpassed language clearly and intelligently spoken, not only by those playing the leading parts but by those taking the minor parts, is a joy and inspiration. It is better still to give the students a chance to play these parts themselves: to let them learn that it is not just a good voice which is needed, but the careful use of lips in enunciation and, above all, that it is understanding—the thought behind the word—which carries conviction to those who are listening. The schools and colleges in Canada and the United States have a great advantage over England in this respect, for most of them have fine auditoriums and splendidly-equipped stages.

The Governors of the Stratford Theatre have the satisfaction of knowing that they have already done much to make the study of Shakespeare a joy and an inspiration over there; twice they have sent their company of actors across the Atlantic to play in many cities both in Canada and in the United States.

Great numbers embraced the opportunity to see the plays, and among innumerable expressions of appreciation many have been received from principals of great schools telling of renewed

zest and enjoyment of the study and playing of Shakespeare among the students in consequence of these visits.

To increase the influence of Shakespeare by the presentation of his plays upon the stage is the main object of the Stratford Memorial. The constitution is under Royal Charter and, while the best possible actors and actresses are engaged, the Governors are debarred from deriving any profit directly or indirectly—all funds can be used only for the objects enumerated in the Charter. Citizens of the United States have given generous help towards the rebuilding of the theatre which was destroyed by fire, and the Governors were happy to be able to show their appreciation of this help by sending their company out.

All that I have written is to indicate the value of a happy introduction to Shakespeare for the young, but a stay at Stratford-upon-Avon during the festivals has attractions and advantages also for those fortunate enough to accompany them. The surrounding district which influenced the poet's writing is very beautiful while, in the old-world town, many of the buildings still stand as they did in Shakespeare's day.

The man or woman attending these plays, keeping company with the poet's characters, drinking in the music of his language, must be indeed dull if he or she does not carry away to the work-a-day world an added zest for life and a more understanding sympathy with mankind.

Those who are keenly interested in goodwill amongst the nations will find inspiration at Stratford, for Shakespeare is indeed a great ambassador for peace. Last year, 120,000 people from every corner of the world visited his birthplace alone. Forgetting their minor differences, they were drawn together by a common admiration of Shakespeare. Those who speak the language of which he was the supreme master have, in Stratford, opportunities of meeting and getting to understand the point of view of many other nationalities. Personal friendly intercourse, leading to a better understanding, is a sure road to peace.

Mime and Improvisation as an Introduction to Acting Plays

JEAN MERCIER

Play producer, pupil of Adolphe Appia, staged Appia's 'Tristan and Isolde' at the Scala Theatre, Milan, in 1923 ; associated for three years with Jacques Copeau at the Théâtre du Vieux-Colombier, Paris ; produced Molière's 'L'Avare' at the Theatre in Basle

' Art only begins where Imitation ends.'

' Art is a symbol because man is a symbol . . . '

Oscar Wilde

HOW should dramatic art be taught ? How shall we set about training actors to be highly skilled and worthy exponents of their craft ? How arouse in them the respect and enthusiasm for their profession which it deserves ?

It seems to me that our first care should be to remind them of the religious origin of the drama, so that they may learn to look upon their rehearsal room as a centre for serious study, and their stage as a sanctuary, a place apart. We ought then to inscribe in letters of gold upon the walls of their studio and the lintel of the door leading to their stage the two quotations from Oscar Wilde which I have chosen as mottoes for this article. These two sentences may be considered as an epitome of dramatic teaching. They tell us the procedure we should follow : we should begin with imitation in order to arrive at symbolism. Substitute the words ' Realism ' for ' Imitation ' and ' Stylisation ' for ' Symbolism ', and you have the two main streams of dramatic expression which have fertilized, and will continue to fertilize, the art of the theatre.

After they have displayed these two sayings where they will be constantly seen by the actors, I suggest to directors, teachers and producers that they should hang upon their own walls the following sentences :—

(1) ' Nous ne savons réellement que ce que nous avons appris par nous-mêmes, et la découverte personnelle est notre unique source d'enthousiasme . . . ' (E. Faure).

(2) ' Nous portons tous en nous notre part de vérité ; mais nous l'ignorons nous-mêmes si nous n'avons pas le désir passionné de la rechercher et si nous n'éprouvons

aucun enthousiasme à la dire . . . ' (E. Faure).

(3) ' Not width but intensity is the true aim of modern art.'

(4) ' Since its object is to stir the feelings of other people, dramatic art is a social phenomenon.'

These four sentences form a coherent whole that can be made into a teaching method. If we add to them our two mottoes for actors, we obtain a Golden Rule for the teaching of dramatic art.

Imitation—or Realism

The first thing every young actor should learn is to use his eyes and observe intelligently and with understanding the world about him. Every day he should go to his director with a new observation taken from life ; he should be able to mimic exactly a gesture or attitude he has noticed, and reproduce the tonal quality of a voice he has heard.

Imitation, based on exact observation from life, is the first step in dramatic education.

Let us pass now to the second step. Starting with the incident or attitude that he has noticed, the young actor (with the help of his director, if need be) should try to define exactly the social class to which the person observed belongs. He should also try to come as close as he can to his character's psychology. Then let him judge of the time taken and space occupied by the incident or gesture.

When we have mastered these four simple but indispensable ideas : social class—psychological state—time—space, we may pass on to the third step, which is improvisation.

The young actor should now sketch a little scenario to include not only the incident observed, but the events that led up to it and succeeded it, these being invented by him, ' improvised ', yet connected with the fact observed

which forms the basis of his improvisation.

To illustrate, let me cite an example.

A stout lady enters a tram. She takes an age to find the money for her fare. Her hands are large. She holds a small purse in her left palm. The conductor stands by, waiting patiently. Several passengers are watching the scene with considerable amusement. She at last succeeds in extracting the coin—only to drop it. She hunts about, and gets a little flustered. A passenger good-humouredly joins in the search. She tries to bend down, but cannot; she is too stout, and fills the whole gangway. Eventually the coin is retrieved—it is a threepenny bit.

This observed fact forms the basis of the improvisation. We proceed with our four elementary ideas:—*Social class*—poor enough for the loss of a threepenny bit to be of moment; shabby and unfashionable clothes. *Psychological state*—nervousness, indicated by the lady's confusion, and heightened by the presence of the waiting conductor and the malicious curiosity of certain of the passengers; this nervousness ends when the good-humoured passenger assists in the search. *Time*—four minutes; this gives the rhythm, the speed of the action. *Space*—one and a half square yard.

The following is the scenario which was based upon this incident. A poor woman living in the suburbs takes a tram into town to apply for a situation. She often looks to see if the tram is coming because her appointment is for a specified hour. The other people waiting for the tram read their papers or look in at the shop windows. She will be the first to step into the tram, for she is afraid of not getting a seat, perhaps even of being left behind. Inside the car she is jostled a little.

That is what precedes the actual observation. Now follows the purse scene.

The reason why this stout woman cannot bend down is that she is helpless in the grip of tight corsets that hamper her movements. This gives us the picture of her person—the way the head is set on the shoulders, the curve of the arms, the awkward walk, the short breath.

Laborious descent from the tram. Entry into the waiting room of the office. It is hot—no air—suffocating. She is not the only one applying for the situation. She waits a long time for her turn. She has an unemployed husband and

three children. When her turn comes at last she is told that the situation is already taken. Pathetic journey home on foot. Domestic scene.

Starting out from a simple observation we have been led to construct a one-act play dealing with an event in modern life.

To extract all the profit possible from such an improvisation, one must go through it twice: the first time in 'mime without words', the second time with words improvised by the actors.

It is a giant stride from pantomime to improvised speech, a stride that represents the personal interpretation of the actor—the expression of his personality. Here the difficult part of the director's task begins: he must correct, but with prudence; he must have much psychological and pedagogical knowledge, much tact, much skill. He must know how to adjust himself to the actor's mentality, whether to aid or to oppose.

This kind of improvisation, taking imitation as its starting point, begins to become 'art' when the actor no longer follows the textual copy, but interprets, that is to say, brings his own faculties—his imagination, his intelligence—to bear on the emotions and incidents he has observed in order to reproduce them on another plane, that of his own personality. This process may be compared to digestion: the food (the imitation, or textual copy from life) is absorbed, and converted into life, feeling, intelligence, emotion (art).

The following interesting experiment may be tried with young actors: Let us suppose that we wish to produce 'Othello'. The usual procedure is to take Shakespeare's text as the point of departure and use it to interpret the psychology of each part. But let us try the inverse process: let us give the actors the scenario of 'Othello', explaining in detail the psychology of the characters and their relations to one another. Let the actors mime this scenario. Then, still with the same scenario, let them make an improvisation with words. Finally, give them Shakespeare's text. By this time, they will already have savoured the essence of the text, and have experienced its actual reactions in accordance with their own temperament, emotional make-up and intellectual comprehension. Their own real and intimate personality can thus be

more easily adapted to the fictitious personality of the character they have to assume.

Instead of making a deduction—that is to say, instead of deducing from the text emotions and states of mind which they do not feel properly themselves—they make an induction, starting from emotions and states of mind which they have personally experienced, and interpreting them according to the Shakespearean design.

This method can be used with pupil-actors, but its value is experimental and educational only. It would lead to the financial ruin of any theatrical enterprise, since it would mean producing a piece twice before even starting on the actual text!

'Art is a symbol, because man is a symbol . . .'

Let us turn now to the second part of our programme.

The first led us to an exposition of the meaning of 'realism' in dramatic art. What is meant by 'stylisation'?

The stylisation of a dramatic movement is the symbolic representation of a 'realistic' movement. It is therefore dangerous to require an actor to express in plastic symbols a movement or emotion, which he has not previously made or felt in real life.

To my mind, it is most important for the apprentice-actor to know how to stylise (or express symbolically) a dramatic movement. And the very best way to achieve satisfactory stylisation is to start from an improvisation based on imitation.

Such improvisation requires the habit of first-hand observation and a rich inventiveness capable of finding scope for the personality of the actor. To be convincing, the stylising of this kind of improvisation calls for steady enthusiasm and perfect physical control. It demands also a deep understanding of the emotions which sway human beings. The transition from reality to symbolism is difficult and dangerous for those who are devoid of the true dramatic sense and who do not possess full emotional control over

their bodies.

In corroboration of this, let me cite the words of one of the most famous men of the theatre—Adolphe Appia. He and Gordon Craig, each in his own particular sphere, have been the pioneers of the contemporary dramatic movement. Appia says: 'Dramatic art in its pure form exists only for and through the existence of the human body in action.' One forgets too often and too easily that dramatic art is not a picture more or less well drawn, a piece of scenery more or less imposing, but that its essential element is the actor and everything else should be thought of in relation to this element—to 'the human body in action'.

In art, the most truthful way of indicating a movement or a thought is to represent it symbolically. Any form of art freed from the material elements which cloak it becomes symbolical. Every symbolical form has its origin in reality; and inversely every reality contains its symbol within itself. How we are to extract the symbol from reality, and express it in the domain of dramatic art is a question that we must leave untouched, since it would lead us too far from our present theme.

In mimed, as in spoken or stylised improvisation, the actor must find within himself, and by himself, his own means of expression. The director must never impose his will. He should guide the actor in his quest, and if need arises, help him with suggestions. He should remember the words:

'We only really know what we have learnt for ourselves, and this personal discovery is our sole source of enthusiasm.'

Having completed the cycle—Imitation (realism, reality, life)—Interpretation (expression of personality)—and Stylisation (symbolical expression of reality)—the actor has at his command all the necessary tools for making of a play, or of his part in it, a true artistic whole. Only now will his work be convincing and will he be able to carry his public with him into the mysterious realm of art—art which is itself a mystery.

Imagination and the Drama

ELLEN VAN VOLKENBERG

With Maurice Browne, Founder of the Chicago Little Theatre, the parent of the Little Theatre Movement in the United States ; former Co-director of the San Francisco School of the Theatre ; at one time Head of the Dramatic Department of the Cornish School, Seattle, U. S. A. ; now Director of the London Theatre Company at the Little Theatre, London

MANY people wonder why there has been so great an increase in amateur dramatic work in England and the United States. Perhaps the reason lies in the fact that this is a mechanical age and the drama affords an escape from mechanism. The imagination is the one vivid thing left to us, and dramatic work is the simplest way of expressing the life and colour that our imagination demands of experience.

The drama is a form of catharsis ; it frees the mind from emotional obstructions. Its value to the individual lies in the opportunity it gives him of using his own imaginative powers. An actor is compelled to think and feel his part if he is to get its emotion across the footlights. In this attempt he learns to know himself and his own emotional limitations and capacities.

This constitutes the appeal and value of dramatic work in later adolescence, when boys and girls are just beginning to know the world and to realize that they must adjust themselves to it. At this period they need to explore their own emotional reactions, and discover the reactions of other people to them. Sometimes an actor's character will be so like the part he plays that he need only be himself in order to give a completely satisfactory performance. But it will more often happen, particularly with a young person, that a part will require of him an emotional attitude still beyond his actual experience. Then, the effort to realize the character fully is a real factor in the expansion of his emotions and sympathies.

This is one important reason why we must always be careful in choosing and casting playst for the effect of a character-study even upon an adult may be lasting. For instance, the playing of a part such as Adolphe's in Strindberg's 'Creditors', in which the actor must leave himself open to morbid suggestion, is a dangerous emotional experience for anyone. This

is also a strong argument against a long run for any play.

The theatre is a world in little. The actors, the producer, the stage staff, are members of an organic whole which cannot function well unless all work together. It can, therefore, be a fine training in co-operative enterprise. One actor can ruin another's speech by failing to listen to it properly. A play is a matter of relations, not of unrelated individuals, and every actor has to learn to sacrifice something of his own individuality in order to blend with the whole. During the vogue of the theatrical 'star' quite another view of the theatre prevailed. But the light of the star has waned, and the star system itself may be said to be coming to an unlamented end.

The producer's part in this world within a world is the same as that of the conductor of an orchestra. He links one individual with another, watches and controls the whole. A good many producers make the mistake of determining all the action on the stage before a single rehearsal has taken place. This is unfortunate, since the movement of each actor on the stage should grow out of his own personal thought process. It should be completely his own ; otherwise it becomes wooden, not plastic. In no two individuals does emotion last the same length of time. It is of either shorter or longer duration. An actor's movement should last just as long as his spontaneous impulse ; if it is prolonged or shortened at the behest of the producer, the result will be mechanical. It is therefore essential for the producer to work by way of suggestion and co-ordination, never by the imposition of his own will or view of the stage action.

Many years ago, while listening to an actress who, although delightful in movement and gesture, spoke her lines monotonously with a complete lack of tonal variety, I was forcibly struck by the ease with which words could be

divorced from their emotional value even by those with long stage experience. In the school of the theatre at San Francisco we tried to make this fault impossible by basing all our stage training upon a form of the mime. At first we tried pantomime. But this was not ideal, for pantomime is movement without sound, and what we wanted was true emotional expression, which is movement and sound vitally connected. Accordingly, we used a mixture of pantomime and sound without articulate words, which we called mime.

As a rule we divided our students into two groups, one to perform and the other to be a critical audience. The performers were given three minutes in which to prepare an improvisation and choose a leader. They might represent objects or scenes of any kind. Sometimes they chose an inanimate object such as an electric light engine, each actor representing a particular part of the machine and making the appropriate sound. Or they might take a forest fire, some playing the part of trees and others of the fire, and the wind, while others again might represent the flying animals or even a terrified human being. Another subject would be a shipwreck, in which parts were assigned to the wind, the lighthouse, and the light, as well as to the passengers, all of whom were highly individualized. Occasionally, the theme of the improvisation was given to the students. For instance, the group was told that they were in an Italian cathedral, and must each represent a particular character and his or her reaction to the place. One might then impersonate an Italian peasant woman come to pray to St. Anthony for a lost necklace; another, an American tourist; a third, an English clergyman; a fourth, a Parisian artist. A group used to this work can make spectators visualize a real cathedral and enter into the miniature dramas enacted, often without pre-arrangement, between two or more of the performers.

All this is done without words, human emotions being expressed through sounds only. No properties, save perhaps a seat or chair, were used. A table or a glass of water would be indicated by the actor's gestures. Invisible

doors had to be opened and shut correctly, hats donned and doffed and sticks held or leaned upon without any material object being used. This was an excellent training in accurate observation and imaginative self-control, and is a part of the actor's alphabet. Here, perhaps, I might stress the importance of dancing for all actors. Too often, excellent dramatic work is spoilt because of a lack of appreciation of rhythmic movement on the stage. I have found the study of Dalcroze Eurhythmics an essential introduction to this side of the actor's art.

The one fundamental condition of this 'mime' improvisation is that each object or character should be so clearly imagined and delineated that intelligent spectators should be able to recognize what is intended. If a human being is portrayed, the sex, the age, the social class and the nation to which he or she belongs should be clear. It is important that there should be a full discussion between the acting group and the audience group after each representation, so that the actors may learn where they have failed to make their intentions plain, and the audience may be stimulated to a closer observation of the movements and sounds by which the actors are trying to convey their meaning.

This type of miming is an excellent training and discipline for the imagination. It can be developed through the imitation of human situations into the art of improvisation, upon which all the work of the theatre is founded. For boys and girls in their teens there is no better way of achieving an imaginative contact with the world. By its means they learn to understand and sympathize with people unlike themselves—a crying need of our civilization to-day, when the world is growing smaller and we are under the pressing necessity of comprehending people very different from ourselves. Dramatic work in schools and in amateur societies can be of the greatest value in this growth of understanding if it is undertaken seriously and not just considered as the rehearsing of an entertainment. We have too long forgotten that sympathy arises only where the imagination is stirred. And for this imaginative stirring drama is the appropriate vehicle.

The Value of Puppets in Schools

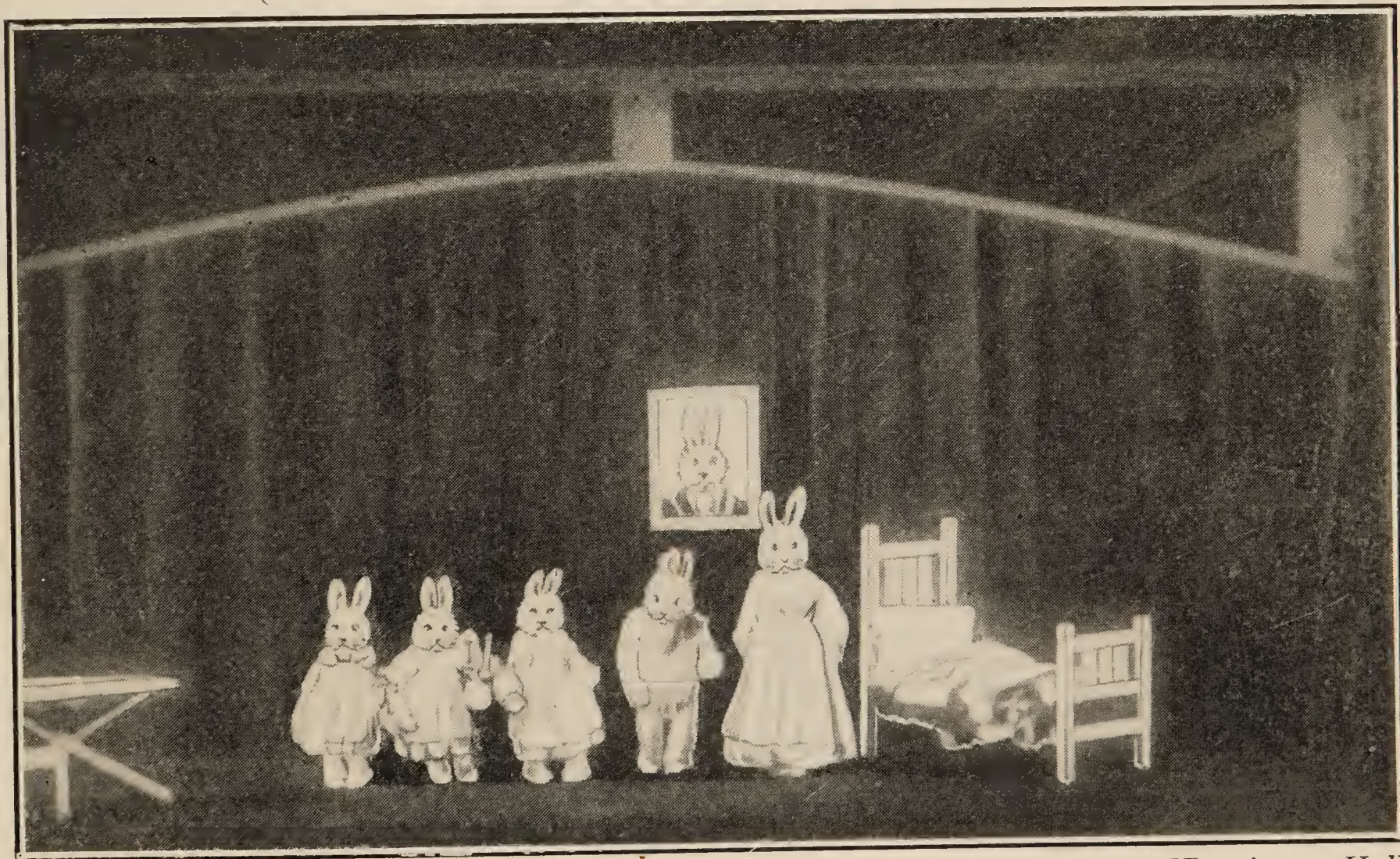
RICHARD ODLIN

At one time Head of the Puppet Department, Cornish School, Seattle, U.S.A., and former Instructor in Puppets at Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devonshire

PUPPETS can be used in a great many ways in connection with ordinary school subjects. They encourage play-reading and play-writing and construction. They are, for instance, an ideal way of presenting historical facts, as the puppet figures can be used again and again reclothed in costumes correct for the period under study. But their uses do not end with representation. Puppets teach craftsmanship, for the children learn to model, to sew, to paint and to design; they demand neat fingers and deft hands; they cannot be used carelessly, clumsily, or with inattention. In performance puppets require a synchronization of voice and hand, and are therefore a good training in the co-ordination of mind and body. Speech can be excellently trained, for the

voice has to be projected through very heavy curtains, and the speech must therefore be clear cut, precise and quick. And they demand a feeling for rhythm in movement and speech. In a word, they teach children the theatre from beginning to end, and the theatre is, in actuality, life in miniature.

There is still another valuable lesson to be learned from the working of a puppet show in schools—a lesson that is usually overlooked. A puppet show offers very good training in social adjustment. I once trained a class of four boys and five girls between the ages of eleven and fifteen, all highly individual and by no means easy to work with. When we began, this group was anything but homogeneous; yet at the end of three months they had become quite un-self-

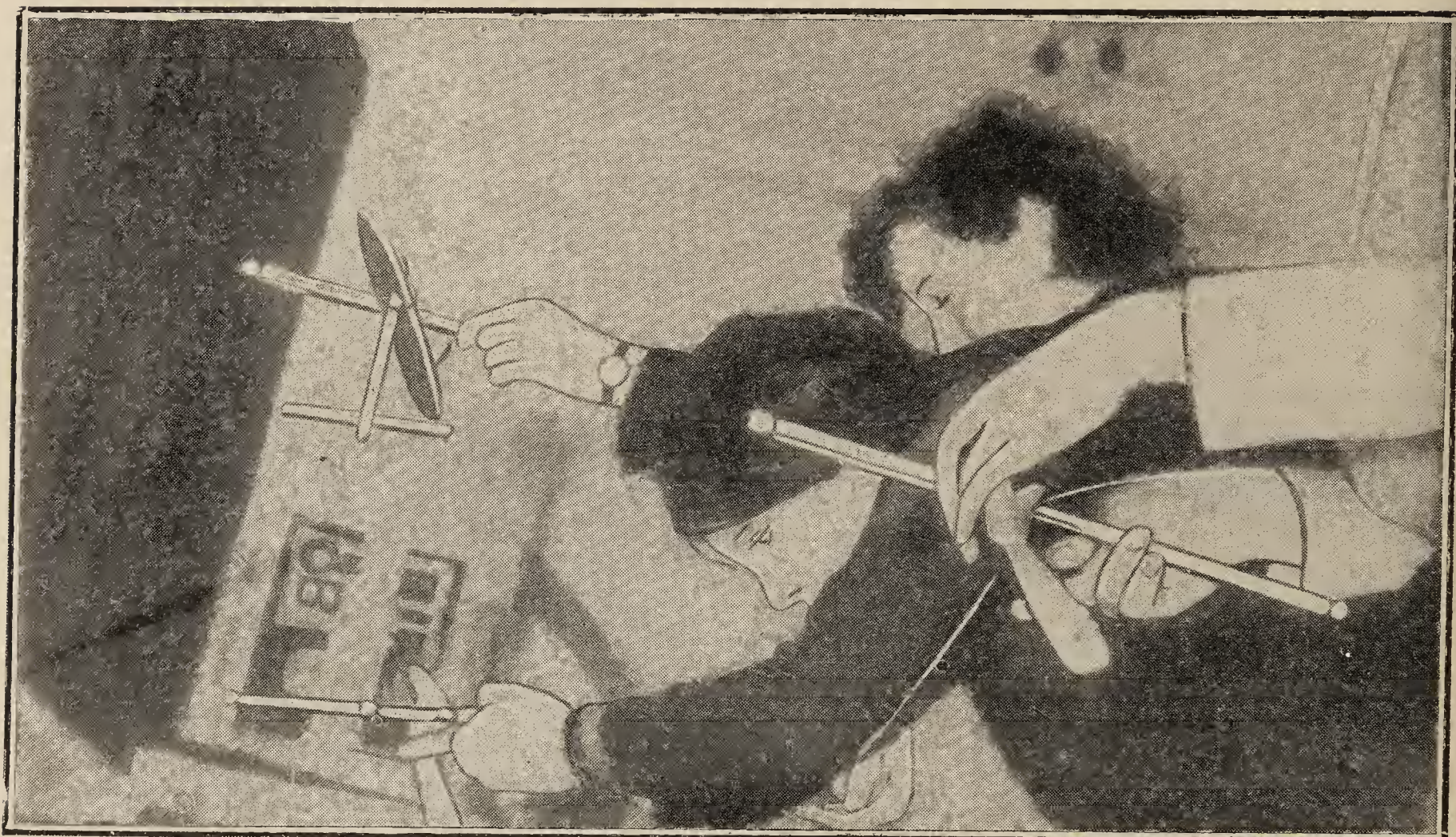


'Peter Rabbit'. Each Rabbit was made and Controlled by a Single Pupil

*[Dartington Hall
Totnes, Devonshire]*

conscious and were no longer aware of their own individualities as distinct from the individuality of the group as a whole. They were working for an ideal, and because of their interest in the whole performance, they ceased to be interested in their own special parts except in so far as these contributed to the general success of the show. They were thus able to co-operate in class, and to gain the courage necessary to rise superior to the many emergencies of the production. Any occupation that can give social training such as this is of the greatest value in schools.

and dress the puppets for the play. They should make all the properties and furniture. The stage is the only thing that should be provided for them. The children should rehearse the play; they should assemble it and manage the lighting. They will require a stage manager; probably an assistant stage manager for alternate performances; a property manager; an electrician; and a wardrobe mistress; all elected from among themselves. All these functionaries should be responsible to the stage manager and not to the teacher. When each performance has ended, all should be left ready for the next.



A Part of the Puppet Control

[Pupils at Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devonshire]

Another useful thing these children learned was that discipline might be fun. The complication of work for the show required strict discipline, otherwise the show could not be given successfully. They soon learned that the only way to do themselves justice was to submit and take discipline as part of the game.

Perhaps I might give in a few words the organization required by a puppet show. The children must do all the work, must carry the show through from the very beginning until the last moment of the last presentation. They should write the play, design the scenery, make

Children under eleven undoubtedly work well, but they do not get the full benefits for they are not, as a rule, capable of understanding it as a significant piece of artistic work. With children over that age, a great deal depends upon the teacher. If he believes in what he is doing, and treats the show as a serious piece of work, he can bring any child round to that same view of it. But he must work with the children, and be one of the group. He must let no hint of patronage enter into his manner; on the contrary, he must win the children's confidence as a fellow-workman. They will then respect him as a disciplinarian.

Dramatic Work in Elementary Schools

MARY COUSINS

Once of Dundee (Scotland) Training College School ; now Assistant Mistress in Salter's Hill Demonstration School to Gipsy Hill Training College, London ; formerly a Student of Miss Marjorie Gullan

ONE of our ablest Board of Education Inspectors expressed recently in a private conversation the opinion that in our new Senior Schools English teaching should be grouped around dramatic work. I am in complete agreement. There are many

In this article I propose to outline a scheme of dramatic work for elementary school-children between the ages of five and ten. Two preliminary questions need to be answered:

(1) Who should take the dramatic work in schools ?

How the class barrier of speech may be broken down by dramatic work is told by Miss Cousins in this article. She also gives an excellent scheme of work for younger children

The class teacher has many advantages over the specialist who meets the children only once a week. The class teacher lives with the children and is part of their development. She knows and understands the individual children, and she can correlate the drama lesson with the general school work. A child's world is personal and dramatic, and his joy in the

drama lesson will stimulate and illumine the rest of his school work.

(2) What place should dramatic work occupy in the time-table ?

There are no hard and fast rules for this, but it is a great mistake to relegate it to the last period in the afternoon, as many time-tables do. The teacher must be fresh and enthusiastic about the piece in question, whether it be Simple Simon or Shakespeare. The time-table should be elastic—a good lesson should not be rudely interrupted, for a high point of enthusiasm is difficult to recapture. It is much better for the teacher to leave the drama lesson until she has an idea or an urge for expression, rather than take it as a matter of duty and routine. Let the lesson go on as long as the interest and enthusiasm last, and then leave it to assimilate for a few days until the children and teacher feel they want to complete and polish the work.

SCHEME OF WORK FOR CHILDREN FROM
FIVE TO TEN YEARS

We begin, of course, with Nursery Rhymes.

of the greatest difficulties a teacher in an English or Scottish State School has to face is the speech of the average child, and as speech is almost the only class barrier left in our democratic age its importance in the curriculum cannot be over-emphasized. A child who speaks carefully will eventually think carefully.

Language consists of tone production and word production, so the child's ear must be trained to recognize intonations and inflections, and he must be further encouraged to attain muscular control of the lips and tongue in order to produce clear crisp speech.

I cannot help feeling that speech training taken as an independent subject soon becomes artificial and boring. It is difficult to make children take speech exercises and tongue twisters seriously, as long as they do not see their use. But the practical value of such exercises can easily be brought home to them in the drama lesson. Children soon realize that they will spoil a play or dramatic story by slovenly speech, and they make a conscious effort to improve.

Arrange the class-room to give as much floor space as possible so that the children can come out and mime the action, while the others in their seats repeat the rhyme, e.g. Little Miss Muffet ; Queen of Hearts. Allow full scope to a naturally dramatic child—he will stimulate the others. Too often work is abandoned because the class is lethargic to begin with. If the children are unresponsive, discuss the rhyme in question, play with it and talk about the characters in an amusing and vivid manner. Let the children learn by *doing* rather than by absorbing your suggestions or copying your movements.

Grade the rhymes carefully and go on to pieces with dramatic dialogue, as in Simple Simon or the quarrel between Robin and Jenny Wren, the class speaking the narrative part in unison. See that the entire class is co-operating all the time and avoid giving the solo parts to the best speakers—unless, of course, you are contemplating a public performance.

Teachers who are using the sentence method of teaching reading, either alone or in conjunction with other methods, will be able to use the sentences in the drama lesson. These can be repeated by the children simultaneously and singly, and the actions performed in groups, e.g. 'We laughed and sang as we rowed in our boat'.

If there is a particularly bad vowel sound in the class, choose a nursery rhyme that contains the difficulty and use it as a speech-training exercise, e.g. 'Bow-Wow-Wow, Whose dog art thou?' (for England); 'Cock-a-doodle-doo' (for Scotland).

As the children get older (six years) the work

should be more formalized. Children should express themselves freely, but a certain amount of effort and concentration should be insisted on to achieve finished work. Go on to cumulative tales which all children love, e.g. The

House that Jack Built ; Titty Mouse and Tatty Mouse ; The Three Little Pigs. (See *Mother Goose's Nursery Rhymes*, Everyman Edition. Published by Dent, London.) The last can be done with older children to enliven a foreign language. There are also animal tales from the Russian which are delightful and amusingly illustrated. (*Picture Tales from the Russian*. By Valery Carrick. Published by Basil Blackwell, London.)

Encourage children to dramatize their fairy tales, making up their own dialogue as they go along. Choose the gifted children first, and you may be sure that the others will watch

entranced and then be the more eager to try when their turn comes. You need not be afraid that you will be encouraging a talented child to show off. On the contrary, you may find that if he is the leader of a group his interest in the whole will lead him to assign the parts as an adult would, giving himself a small, though perhaps difficult, rôle for the sake of the total effect. An incident will make this clear.

I once asked an extremely dramatic child to choose her own caste and mime in action (without words) any fairy tale she pleased, while the rest of us were to guess which one it was. She chose her company and they all retired to decide their play and arrange about parts. Her casting was excellent, and I was amused to find that she did not play the heroine herself, although she was a beautiful child. The play turned out to be Cinderella, and the producer



The Nymphs in 'Boy Hylas' [Salter's Hill Demonstration School]



The Nymph and The Goblin (Ages 7 and 9 years)

[Salter's Hill Demonstration School]

took the small part of the Ugly Sister, which, however, she made into a highly amusing character study!

Having thus stimulated the child's imagination with the simplest poetry of tradition, we can go on to more ambitious work. The rhymes have improved the child's speech and made him conscious of the joy of rhythm so that he is now prepared for more varied and delicate metre, such as is found in de la Mare. Many of his poems are excellent for dramatic work. (For instance, *Songs of Childhood*. Published by Longmans, London.)

By the age of seven he will be ready for easy ballads, short plays and little verse dramas. Avoid the inane sweetly-pretty stuff that is written for children by people who know very little about them. Anatole France says: 'When you are writing for children do not assume a style for the occasion. Think your best and write your best.' In the same way when a child is

speaking poetry insist that his voice is natural. Avoid over-carefulness of speech and see that he does not adopt a special 'poetry voice' which is elocutionary and artificial.

Some of A. A. Milne's amusing poems can be dramatized, and Eleanor Farjeon's *Nursery Rhymes of London Town* (2 vols., published by Duckworth, London); and little verse dramas are useful. Now we can improve choral speaking and make the child conscious of his voice as an instrument to produce variety of tone and inflection. This can be done in the simplest ways. Talk to the child in a flat toneless voice and ask if he would like to live with someone who talked like that. Then draw his attention to the rise and fall of his own voice when talking to his mother; cf. 'Mummie, please can I have a chocolate?' He will soon realize that he must use all the tones in his voice if he wishes to get the beauty and meaning out of poetry.

Choral speaking is a great help in voice pro-

duction and diction, and, moreover, it gives a shy child scope to express himself more sincerely and boldly than he would otherwise do. I have also found that when speaking in a crowd the children's spontaneous movements are more real and more rhythmic. By watching children in this way you can use and develop their own natural gestures.

Between the ages of seven and ten years children can and do enjoy adaptations of *The Pied Piper*; *Hiawatha*; Christina Rossetti's *Goblin Market*; also simple ballads, such as Earl Haldane's *Daughter*, with the class speaking the narrative in chorus and two children taking the parts of the *Rover* and the *Lady*.

Avoid sentimental poetry and choose ballads of the robust sort, such as *Robin Hood ballads*. *The Ballad of Otterburn*, *The Abbot of*

Canterbury, and so forth, which give scope for intelligent character study. (Dent publishes a *Book of Ballads* at 2s.)

Encourage different interpretations of the characters and learn from the children by hearing their suggestions. You can learn more from clever children than from all the textbooks in the world.

If a big class gets restive or noisy stop for five minutes and give breathing exercises. This will calm the excited children and stimulate the lazy ones.

Do not over-polish your pieces unless you have a public performance in view.

The joy of creation is much more thrilling than the finished production, and the aim of our work should be to deepen and intensify the emotional life of the children.

Drama in the Preparatory School

P. DRUMMOND THOMPSON

*Teacher of Music and English, Château de Bures, Seine-et-Oise, France ; late Music Master
The Grange, Cockfosters, Hertfordshire*

PUTTING a show on at the end of term' does not imply a mere entertainment for the parents. On the contrary, one may be led to have so little respect for the audience as to be prepared to sacrifice it altogether to an absorbing interest in the educational value of dramatics.

The 'Rhesus' of Euripides affords an example of how the work of a term may be closely interwoven with a dramatic project. The play is short ; it is the story of the Tenth Book of the *Iliad*, and is therefore eminently suited to the tastes of Preparatory School boys ; and a certain amount of music is necessary.

The properties necessary for the production involved the moulding of clay utensils and amphoras, the construction of scenery, the making of a harp, a Thracian war-chariot, weapons, shields, and so forth. But its real significance lay in the fact that it was the cul-

minating point of a year's work of references to Greek literature and mythology. Every teacher realizes how important is a background knowledge of the *Iliad*, the manners and customs of the Hellenic races, and the personalities of their gods and heroes. One is constantly reminded of the unity which exists in this study when these references and comparisons are necessary in English, Latin, Greek itself, and History. This unity also helps to assist a balanced mental development. Such a project overshadows class-work, is beneficial to lessons, free time amusements, and hobbies.

It was deemed important that the boys should really live in the atmosphere created by the play, so for a month before the final performance all the chief rehearsals were carried on with the actual scenery in place and with the correct lighting effects. The endeavour was to help the boys to develop what they them-

selves began, and, when necessary, to show them how to do it. The commencement of an appropriate action came quite naturally to a boy who really felt he was playing the part in the right atmosphere; coming from within himself, it gave him his chief pleasure in playing the part, and he was thus eager to develop similar actions all through.

Since the drama takes place at night, the chief source of illumination was the glowing wood-fire of the Trojan outposts placed in the centre of the stage, and round which the chorus acted throughout. The ruddy gleam cast upon the figures and faces, the genuine shadows and the surrounding gloom helped the boys to express themselves entirely naturally. The project was therefore successful. Again, the play was made a reality to those who were not old enough to carry a speaking part, for they were included in a real torch-light procession, in the triumphal entry of a barbaric king, and in a rough repast round the camp fire while the leading characters spoke their parts.

Later, the conventional appearance of the *deus ex machina* was effected with corresponding reality. A plain curtain of muslin gauze was hung across an embrasure in a corner of the stage, masked by the outline of forest foliage. Behind this the goddess took her stand unseen until her cue arrived, when, by the switching on of a light placed behind the gauze and above her head, she appeared as it were veiled in a misty cloud among the trees.

The four boys relegated to the chorus gradually discovered themselves to be the real backbone of the play. Lacking in self-confidence before, they were thus given the opportunity, almost without their being aware of it, to perform their share without any embarrassment,

and without being officially placed in the public eye where it would have been harder for them to overcome their disability. Their unconscious success stimulated them greatly in every way.

Activities connected with the production were divided as follows. The shields were designed, made, and painted as part of the drawing course; a small group procured clay and moulded it into vessels and cups; a single individual produced the parts for a harp which had but to be glued up and strung with five fiddle strings, each tuned to a certain note for giving the chorus its pitch. A large group of younger boys, armed with pastel crayons, worked upon sheets of stout brown paper. These were cut to represent Mount Ida and coloured purple. The 'mountain' was then erected between two other walls of paper coloured blue and green and cut to represent sky and foliage, and the outline of the purple mountain was thrown into relief by a red light concealed behind it, which also delicately flushed the sky. Two or three other boys constructed the chariot, manufactured spears, and so forth. The Greek dresses were simple enough to be produced without undue difficulty.

But whether the inclinations and opportunities of a term's work be directed towards classical mythology, solo and choral singing, Shakespeare, or a big effort in French—such as was so successfully centred round the production at The Grange School, Cockfosters, Hertfordshire, of 'La Poudre aux Yeux' of Labiche—the project may be both closely related to the work of the school, and at the same time a means of entire self-expression and development in an atmosphere rather freer than, though supplementary to, that of the actual classroom.

Play-making with Eight-to-Twelve-Year-Olds

ERICA INMAN

For some time in charge of Dramatic Work, junior and adult, at Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devonshire

PLAY-MAKING is a form of self-expression natural to almost all children ; it is a carry-over of the 'let's pretend' spirit of nursery days, and the same sense of freedom to indulge the wildest flights of their imaginations is essential for successful play-making. If this freedom is allowed, their imaginations will be stimulated and ideas will flow naturally. The children will learn how to express themselves through their own bodies ; they will learn to respect each other, and they will learn how to play together. If they play together, they will work together ; and anything that is done by a group of children who really know how to work together bears a hall-mark that no work done by a teacher-dominated group can ever have.

My group of children worked on improvisations of their own, impromptu dramatizations of their own plots, of nursery rhymes, fairy tales and other stories, incidents in history and mythology—in fact, anything they chose to do. There was no lack of material once they got hold of the idea. Charades and miming were very popular because of the puzzle element. They spent several periods working singly or in small groups, miming such things as drinking from an imaginary glass of water, opening and shutting an imaginary door, coming into a supposedly dark room and feeling for an imaginary box of matches and lighting an imaginary candle. They went through a miming representation of getting up in the morning with all the business of washing, dressing, cleaning their teeth and brushing their hair. They acted a picnic in the woods, picking their way through brambles and undergrowth, gathering flowers, climbing trees, and eating their sandwiches. These and other exercises of the kind were very good for them, because they had to concentrate so much on what they were doing that they forgot to be shy and self-conscious. Their powers of observation were sharpened until they became most exacting with themselves and each other ; this was proved by such criticisms as,

'You can't hold a glass of water with your fingers meeting', or 'A door doesn't open that way if the handle is on that side' ; and, 'She ate her sandwich, but she didn't swallow it', 'You cleaned your teeth and didn't put your toothbrush away'.

Dramatizations of nursery rhymes were a great source of joy. I could multiply examples, but one must serve to show how they tackled them. One Christmas term the children wanted to do a play 'with words and scenery and everything'. After much discussion and experimenting, they decided to do *The Queen of Hearts*. The whole play grew out of the children's discussion, which went something like this :

'Why did the Queen make the tarts ? Hadn't she a cook ?'

'Oh yes, I expect so ; but they must have been rather special tarts for the Prince's birthday.'

'Well, we'll have to put that in, then.'

'And we must have a Prince. Robin can be the Prince, because he's the smallest.'

'How are we going to show that it was all on a summer's day ?'

'I know ; we can have a garden scene, and the Prince can be playing in the sand heap.'

'Oh yes ; and the King can give the Prince a birthday present.'

'Then the Queen can tell the King that she's going to make some tarts and have a party for the Prince.'

'Let's do that scene now—can we ?'

And they did. The parts of the King, Queen, Prince and Nurse were allotted by vote to the children best suited to them. They assembled on the stage, and played their parts. The children were by now so used to playing together that the dialogue came comparatively easily. They stopped several times during the scene to discuss the dialogue ; those who were watching made suggestions ; they altered and revised and rehearsed the scene several times ; until we were all satisfied. I made notes of the dialogue

and had typed copies made of it after each class, but no child ever used the script ; he knew his part without having to learn it. Each scene—there were six scenes—was built up in this way.

They introduced many original and amusing ideas. For instance, the Queen was a food crank who fed the royal family on a nut and milk diet, and the poor King had to creep to the kitchen daily to get a good square meal from the cook. He was discovered by the Queen on the classic occasion when she went to the kitchen to make her tarts, and he threatened to elope with the cook if he was not fed better in future. The Queen thereupon abandoned the nut and milk diet, and ordered cottage pie for lunch that day, which the cook instructed the Tweeney Maid to put on the menu as Palace Pie, the word 'palace' being carefully spelt for Tweeney's benefit. The Cook insisted on having a cat in the play, because she said she was a grumpy person who didn't like people but loved her cat. The Cat played a most important part. It was he who found the Knave stealing the tarts, tracked him to his den, and led the raiding party when the theft was discovered. The end of the play was very amusing ; the King brought out his saxophone, with which he proposed to entertain his guests. He produced a series of heartrending and ear-splitting sounds. The suffering guests one by one stole from the room with their hands over their ears, and the King was left playing his saxophone while the cat circled uneasily round his feet making disconsolate noises.

For this play the children decided what they would wear, helped with the making of their costumes, designed and made their own scenery; and stage managing, property managing, scene shifting, and so forth, were largely done by the children themselves.

One is constantly surprised and delighted by the freshness of children's ideas. At a children's performance which I saw the other day, a little girl who was acting the part of a serving girl was sent out by the landlord of the inn to feed the chickens. While she pretended to throw grain to them, she hopped about the stage making a noise very reminiscent of agitated hens.

The landlord asked her why she made that funny noise, and she replied, 'Don't be silly, that's not me, it's the chicks'. She was really impersonating the maid and *all* the chickens ! It was a brilliant idea. That kind of thing is always happening when a group works on these lines. Flashes of inspiration amounting to genius are not infrequent, and the teacher must be quick to recognize them and see to it that they are not lost.

Have I given the impression that the teacher's part with this method is an easy one ? It is not. It is much easier to dominate and impose one's own ideas than to act as a sieve for the children's ideas. The teacher must keep a perfectly open mind ; must turn down nothing until it has been tried and voted out by the children themselves. Children will always try to do things that are too difficult, but they will not believe in their own limitations unless they are allowed, whenever possible, to find them out for themselves. The teacher must sift and sort and help to arrange things in logical sequence, without taking matters out of the children's hands. To keep things clear is most important, because if they are allowed to get into a muddle the group is apt to become bewildered and discouraged by a sense of futility and frustration. In her rôle of unobtrusive guide it is for the teacher to keep up standards, discouraging as unworthy all slipshod work, gently insisting that everything shall be done as well as possible, cheering and inspiring the children through the patches of dull routine work which must occur in every activity.

If the children try to make a play on a subject about which they know very little, as, for instance, an expedition to the North Pole, the teacher will, by suggestions and questions, arouse their interest and fire their ambition to find out more. Their questions will not be slow in coming, and when they start all the doors will be wide open for a North Pole project. There is no end to the fun and fascination, to say nothing of the educational value, of seeking knowledge in this way, and play-making is an inexhaustible mine of satisfaction and pleasure to the children and the teacher.

Creative Drama in the Winnetka Schools

FRANCES PRESLER

Head of the Department of Group and Creative Activities in the Winnetka Public Schools, Illinois

IN Winnetka we have learned that the dominant type of dramatization by young children is dramatic play. The complete self-abandon through this play is the teacher's opportunity for insight into a child's interests, powers and characteristics. But unhappily the average schoolroom is not the setting which invites this abandon on the part of small people.

You and I built play-houses and lived a life imitative of our childhood environment. Today our highly complex and mechanical environment (of cinemas, motors, radios, mechanical toys, electrical devices, and small flats) inhibits much of a child's impulse to crude natural expression. But since what a child does is so much more important than what is done to him, the school must make possible and encourage children's participation in life through dramatic play.

To use the play-house and its resulting dramatic play educationally we need to provide children with experiences which give the right stimulus to their age level; and then to provide materials and means of expressing that experience. We find that the following typical materials and situations bring forth dramatic play up to about nine years of age.

The kindergarten and first grades need materials for rapid building of structures large enough to get into. Floor blocks are best, but large packing-cases and piano boxes have possibilities, and also corner spaces where furniture or equipment may be arranged.

Visits to places of community activity form the stimulus for a play grocer's shop, fire station, train, park, post office, dairy, and so on. The younger the children the more rapidly construction proceeds and the more quickly dramatic play begins. Such construction may need group organization but spontaneous play is more desirable than supervised play.

One of the kindergarten children recently went to a grocer's shop to buy apples to make apple sauce. On his return the children quickly

arranged their blocks into a grocery. Then everyone wanted to be salesman. The teacher showed the children pictures of the many other kinds of work necessary for the carrying on of a grocery. Soon there was a wholesale grocery house, a truck and a train for transporting goods, and mothers and children marketing. Following the suggestions made by the pictures this development came without other supervision and continued for half an hour without adult suggestion. It involved the entire group of children.

Often the beginning of such play is made when two or three children arrive rather early in the morning, or at noon. All is quiet and the setting suggests the enacting of some recent bit of experience still in the mind of one child. From this specific beginning the play develops variety. Usually the group is rather small, but is made up of different individuals from time to time.

There is no plot in dramatic play at this age. Play may begin anywhere and continue until the activity for some reason ceases. The procedure may or may not be the same the next time. Pantomime is apt to exceed conversation, and daily routine of action may form much of the play—going to bed, getting up, eating, starting for school, shopping. Miscellaneous properties at hand are stimulating to little children. Adult hats, purses, skirts, coats, available for instant use, often transform a timid child into a new, reassured character with an absorbing purpose.

There is no audience in this play. Children either play or do something else, and unless unfortunately made conscious of an outside observer, this dramatization is the perfect example of honesty, reality and abandon. It is in such reality as this that the roots of tolerance and social feeling take hold.

One of the tragedies of the mushroom growth of activities in school recently is that construction by the children is considered the end of the activity; the product is looked on as an exhibit and too little time and opportunity are allowed

for spontaneous growth of dramatic play.

Activity among six-year-olds is a more mature development of that described for the kindergarten. We use a different type of building blocks so that the physical demand is greater. Little children need repeated experiences with their environment to understand the satisfaction of their own needs—how they are provided with milk and other food, how houses are built, how people of a community work in various ways to supply the needs of all.

Children of seven years of age are ready for a

to represent a Dutch room, a visit to such a room at the Art Institute shows the need for a cupboard bed, a large fireplace, a window-seat, foot-warmer and dower chest. These are made, and the whole environment of the room demands harmony of dress. Mothers are often drawn into the scheme, and substantial school clothes of Dutch peasant type appear. Some child's dog finds himself pressed into the harness of an improvised milk-cart. Cottage cheese is made and served with the morning lunch. Winter brings Dutch skating carnivals.



Heralding the Sun—Egyptian Play by 9-year-olds

[Winnetka Public Schools, Illinois]

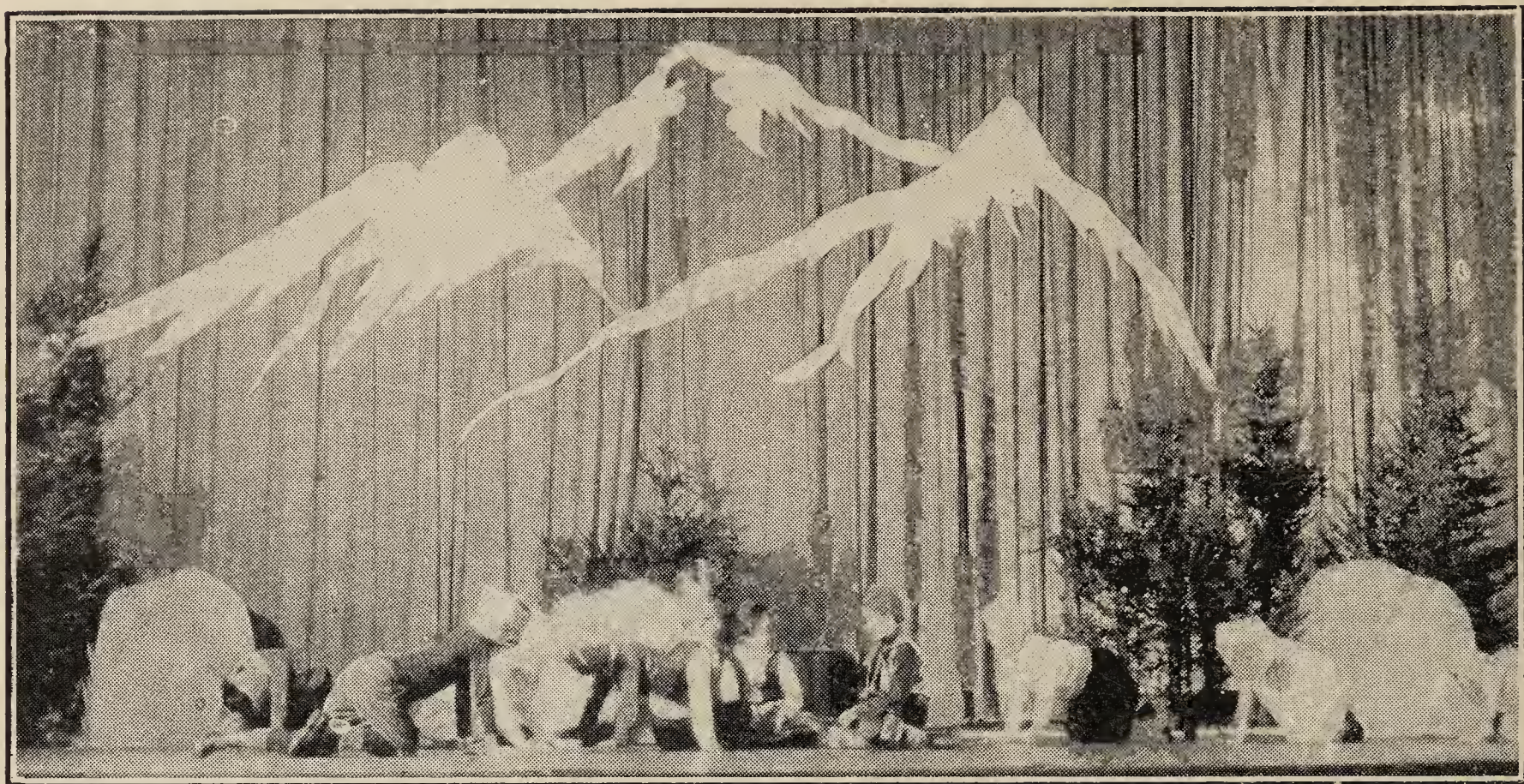
new type of experience—one not necessarily of their own environment, but of simple social organization. For this we frequently use Southwest Indians—a primitive social type.

At eight years of age the elements of dramatic play are still dominant, but are rather less obvious. A setting particularly suited to this level is the making of the schoolroom into a social environment such as a Dutch or French home, a Viking boat, a Swiss kitchen.

New problems of construction again make new demands on the children. When they are full of a background of peasant life and choose

Thus the children live in the atmosphere of a type of culture within their grasp and enjoyment. Generally we find that the understanding of the life of the people through variety of stories and multiplied experiences is expressed in an original play.

An original play of Swiss life given by eight-year-olds demonstrates particularly well child ingenuity and resourcefulness. The dramatization consisted of a series of incidents, which lack of plot is characteristic of children's original plays. The kitchen setting was arranged outside the front curtain, with a centre gap in the cur-



Swiss Mountain Life—Dramatic Play by 8-year-olds

[Winnetka Public Schools, Illinois]

tains forming the open door which looked out on the mountains. (An effect secured with white paper snow cap shapes pinned to back curtain.) The children's Christmas trees forested the mountain side. The migration of the herds was represented by a procession of children on hands and knees down the side aisle of the auditorium, and up the side steps of the stage ; this gave the impression of clambering up the mountain. Reality of the entire procedure was so complete that no suggestion was ever made for costuming cattle and goats other than a paper sack head-dress with rolled paper horns, and tiny bells round the necks of the animals.

The story is, of course, the usual basis for dramatization with children of nine years and older. But here again there must be a rich background to supply feeling. Such play is more teacher-directed, and unless it be wisely developed from great familiarity with the story, real feeling and clear concept, it will be artificial and superficial.

After the children are familiar with the entire story they have chosen, the teacher will help them to select the parts of the story to play, and teacher and pupils will then plan the

organization necessary. Such discussions are valuable parts of play development.

Dramatic development is a growth. It moves slowly because it is a thing of spirit expressed from within. Characters may be built up one at a time, made mentally vivid through the children's own experiences which would help to interpret the mental attitude of the character ; and made physically real by absolute honesty of action. Characters have characteristic ways of walking, acting, handling objects, talking according to their age, disposition, spirit. Honesty of action challenges the ability of the performer and the co-operative attention of those in the group not taking part in the actual dramatization at the time.

We never memorize parts because our purpose in dramatization is creation. We would feel that we had allowed the play merely to repeat itself if in the final performance nothing was said that had never been said before. The impossibility of forgetting makes for ease and poise. Children are trained to feel that it does not matter so much what is said and done so long as it is what might have been said or done by the people whom they are pretending to be.

Dramatic Teaching in a Day Secondary School

F. C. HAPPOLD, D.S.O., M.A.

Headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, England

IT was once said of one of my late colleagues, a man who had played a prominent part in the introduction of the Direct Method in the teaching of modern languages, that he had done a greater dis-service to the cause of education than almost any man of his generation, in that he had made widely popular a method suitable only for a limited number of expert teachers. We must beware lest a similar accusation is levelled against those who have introduced—or would it be more true to say revived?—dramatic methods of teaching. Criticism of the use of dramatic methods would not be so much that only experts can teach by such means, though by no means all teachers are capable of using them effectively, but that such methods are sometimes over-stressed and put to wrong uses.

It must be remembered that there is a time to act and a time not to act. For instance, though dramatic methods may be valuable in the teaching of history to pupils of junior school age, after a good deal of experiment, I feel that they are of little use in the teaching of history in the secondary school. At the age of 11 + it is wiser to concentrate on aspects of the subject which can be more effectively studied by other means. Employed with discretion and in their proper place, however, dramatic methods of teaching, by which I mean the acting rather than the writing of plays and dramatic episodes, can be of great educational value throughout the whole of a secondary school course.

The best way, if not the only way for any but advanced students, to study a play is to act it, and to act it not merely as a piece of literature but with due attention to such stage necessities as movement and gesture. I believe that many teachers get little value out of dramatic

teaching because they are thinking primarily of the study of a text rather than of the acting of a play. By all means let there be an occasional pause for the discussion of plot and characterization, but do not let this be a substitute for the bringing out of these things through the voices and actions of the actors.

Drama should, I think, be a definite subject in the curriculum, closely allied with, but distinct from, the ordinary English subjects.

Periods should be set aside not merely for the study of a play, whether it be by Shakespeare or one of the moderns does not for the moment matter, but for the acting of it, periods in which the youthful actors are trained how to speak blank verse or prose, how to move about easily on a stage, how to express the actions suggested in the play by voice and gesture. Such training is of great

value in the acquisition of poise, self-confidence and vivid and effective speech, virtues of great use in after life but sometimes neglected in our examination-ridden and over-academic schools.

It is difficult to use dramatic methods with full effect in an ordinary classroom. Dramatic, like scientific, teaching, needs its own particular laboratory—a theatre, it does not matter how small, equipped with a simple stage and a small quantity of conventionalized furniture. Since they help to create illusion and make acting easier, a few cloaks and hats and some easily made properties, such as swords and shields are desirable. It is useful also to have prepared sets of special properties for particular plays, such as the caskets for 'The Merchant of Venice', the lion's mask, lantern, thornbush and bricks for the Pyramus and Thisbe episode in 'A Midsummer Night's Dream,' and so on.

Many say that dramatic work cannot be included among the 'subjects' in the curriculum of an ordinary secondary school.

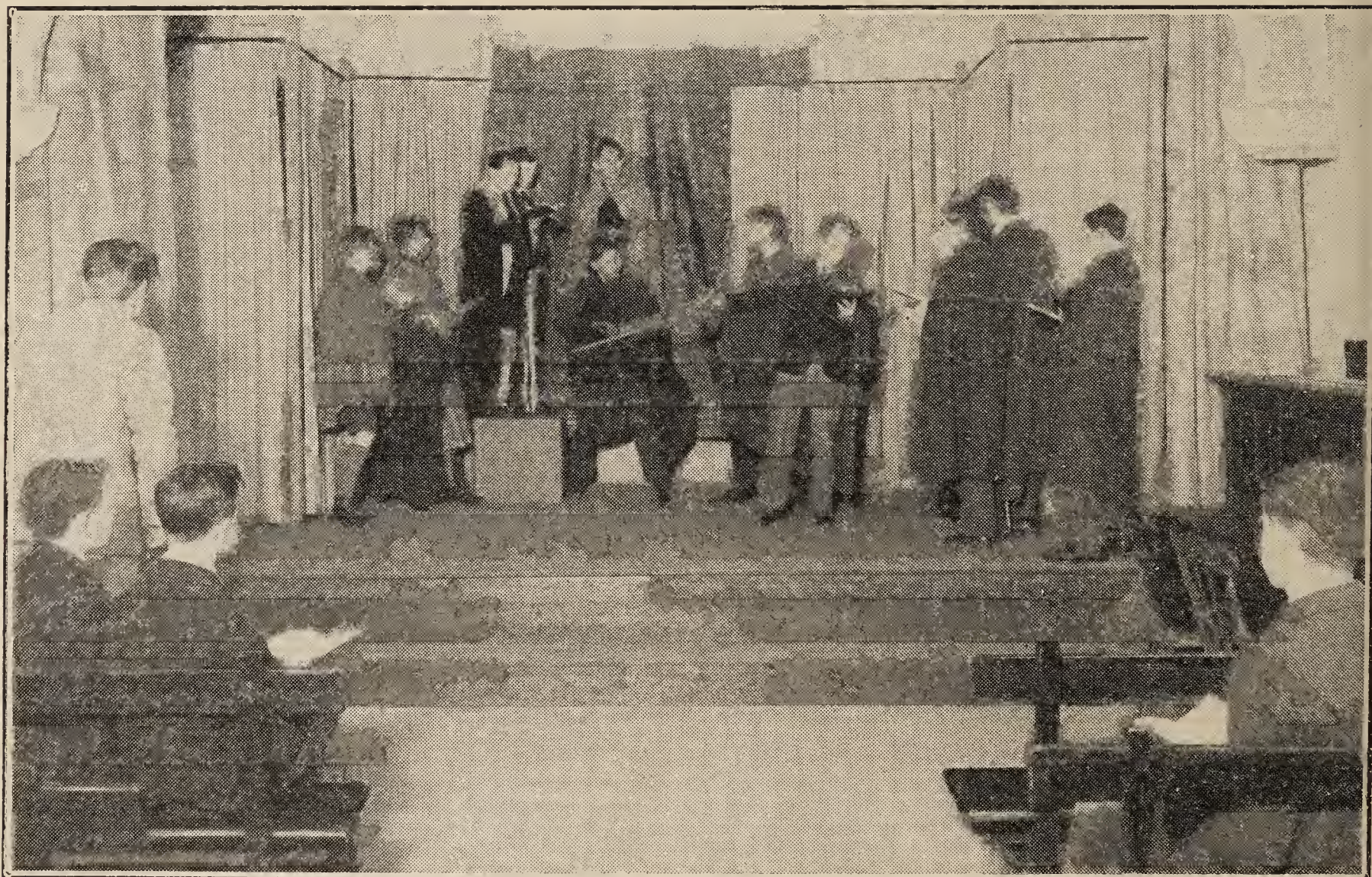
Mr. Happold, however, believes that it can, and shows how this is done in his own school

It is, however, in practice such as is possible in a normal school, rather than in theory, that the ordinary teacher is especially interested. Such is my justification for attempting to describe briefly the dramatic work in my own school.

Here drama has a definite place in the curriculum of all forms below those taking the School Certificate. It is shown as a distinct subject on the time-table, not merely as a part of English. Dramatic teaching is in the hands of one man. There is no particular reason why this should always be so, except that it may happen that all the members of an English staff are not equally expert in teaching drama. Each form has one period a week devoted to this subject. Though we may eventually include modern plays, at present we confine ourselves, for the most part, to Shakespeare, of whose plays at least one and sometimes two are performed in a term. We do not hesitate to omit unsuitable or dull sections.

I write 'performed' deliberately, since all

drama lessons are conducted in a little school theatre. This theatre was made out of a rather large classroom (33' by 18') by the boys themselves. It contains a small, simple, curtained stage (18' by 11' by 2'), stepped down to an auditorium, which will hold about 50-60 people, and is equipped with long, wooden, backed forms. Plugs for a lighting system have been put in, but the lighting system has not yet been made. The walls, which are hung with photographs of plays and with costume designs, were decorated by three boys, living over 10 miles from the school, who gave up a week of their holidays to carry out the work. The theatre contains a piano and a gramophone, and in addition to being used for acting is also used for classes in music, for lectures, and, since we possess no school hall, for prayers for the 'house' which cannot be accommodated in the School Chapel—indeed, at any time when we want to get away from the atmosphere of the ordinary classroom. It is thus utilized for most of the day and has fully justified its construction.



A Lesson in the School Theatre

[Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, England]



*Nativity Play, 'The Finding of the King' [Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, England
Stage Setting and Costumes designed and decorated by The Bishop's Players*

Varying opinions are held on the value of the public performance of plays by schoolboys. Some maintain that the time spent and the strain involved are educationally unjustifiable. Much, however, depends on the spirit in which the plays are produced. If they are merely regarded as entertainment the objectors are probably right, but if the preparation of them is so organized that a number of pupils, possessing different accomplishments, are banded together to work for a common end and determined to produce something of real æsthetic worth, then such productions have, I believe, a real social and artistic value. It is necessary that the plays produced should be the best that the actors are capable of performing, that the artist and craftsman should find in them his appropriate work, and that a high ideal of perfection should be set up.

The plays produced since January 1929 by the dramatic society of the school, the Bishop's Players, include A. A. Milne's 'The Princess and the Woodcutter', performed by young players in a garden, Marlowe's 'Dr. Faustus', performed on an open-air Elizabethan stage, Laurence Housman's 'Brother Wolf', Chekhov's 'On the High Road', Fielding's 18th century

burlesque, 'Tom Thumb the Great', and a Nativity play, 'The Finding of the King', made by F. C. Happold and set to music by R. R. Broome, in which, as actors, singers, musicians, designers, painters, carpenters and handymen, some one hundred to one hundred and fifty persons took part. Everything used by the Players is home-made. Though in a school exclusively masculine, the aid of parents and friends must be called upon for the actual sewing of dresses, all else, the designing and construction of stage settings, the decoration of costumes, the making of furniture and properties, is done by the staff and boys of the school.

But what of perfection? Can there be in a school production anything but a faint and crude imitation of what is done much better by trained actors and actresses? I believe there can. There is in the acting of boy players something which, while essentially different in character from what one gets on the ordinary stage, is yet æsthetically satisfying. I have never been able to analyse it, but I feel to be of real artistic worth.

Though it may interfere with normal routine, the production of a school play needs little defending. It is time well spent.

The Omnipotent Babe—III

PAUL BOUSFIELD

Author of 'The Omnipotent Self', 'Sex and Civilization', 'Functional Nervous Diseases' etc.

(In the December 1930 and February 1931 issues of the New Era, Dr. Bousfield discussed the Nature of Early Training, The Unconscious, The Omnipotent Babe and The Development of Love and Hate. These articles are based on a book to be published later under the above title)

THE TRAINING OF INFANTS

IN the previous two articles we saw that the longer a child is allowed to return to the pre-birth condition after it has been born, the more fixed will become the desirability of this omnipotent condition, and the more difficult will it be to introduce the child to reality. Therefore, for instance, it should neither be rocked to sleep nor be crooned over, since these suggest, respectively, conditions similar to those produced by the movement and sounds of the mother before it was born; the rhythmic motion and sounds—the pre-birth lullaby—that it then experienced.

Warmth, of course, is essential, but apart from suitable clothing, the child should be allowed to acclimatize itself, immediately after birth, to its new conditions. Even immediately after birth, the healthy, normal child should be left to fall asleep of its own accord, which it will do. Let me emphasize that if from birth a baby's cries are not accepted as a signal for fulfilling its wishes, in nine cases out of ten it will cease to cry after a very short period, or at least will reduce its cries to a minimum. In instances where parents have dealt with a baby thus and insisted on the nurse also dealing with it thus from birth, the desired effect has actually been produced.

The child should be fed at regular intervals prescribed by the physician, but at no other times, and it should not be allowed any breast substitute, apart from a possibly necessary bottle, of any kind whatever to suck. If it is, it will have a *much greater feeling* of loss when at last the mother is compelled to break the habit, and this feeling of loss apparently tends to form an ineradicable habit of fear of the loss of every pleasure afterwards discovered. This, again, causes strong feelings of inferiority; the individual develops a temperament which

finally fears loss, i.e. impotence in connection with every wish in after life, which it desires to fulfil; that is to say, it lacks confidence in dealing with reality and in attaining its objectives. Indeed in some cases it may even become a sexually impotent or perverted individual.

A child may be allowed when teething to have something hard to chew, but the period of chewing must be entirely limited to the short period of time necessary.

It is important that the child should not be allowed to get too hungry, for this will cause strong feelings of hate towards the source of food, i.e. the mother. I therefore regard it as imperative that feeding should be frequent during the first few weeks, for by means of frequent feeding the hunger sensations are never allowed to become strong, and the pleasure of their satisfaction is equally less charged with feeling. It appears to be better if the child be fed every two hours for the first week or so, the time between meals, after this period, being gradually extended according to the usual method.

The repeated experience of feeding is the first experience by means of which the child learns to distinguish between itself and the outside world, and it learns to transfer its love from the breast or bottle to the provider, i.e. the mother. Hence it is at this period that the mother begins to assume a still greater influence over the infant, when she can, by the sum total of her attitude and activities towards life, with which she forms the infant's environment, sway it in any direction, to its making or marring.

Last month we saw that a child up to the age of 2 or 3 years will take a very considerable interest in its own excreta. This interest must not be *unduly* checked; it will of its own accord be diverted in due course into higher forms of interest—water, sand, mud, clay and paint.

But if the interest is unduly checked, the child will become obstinate and wilful, for the deliberate and over-emphasized preventing of its early emotional pleasure, *once firmly established*, leads to a continual, though unconscious, battle between child and mother, and creates an obstinate attitude of mind which becomes habitual in after life as an unconscious factor working against all authority and teaching. It must never be forgotten that the persons who form the environment in the first few months of a child's life inevitably form certain essential characteristics for its future life.

If a child shows a tendency to grow constipated, and it is necessary to give medicine, the medicine should not be nasty; if possible, it should be disguised in food, or be so flavoured as to be taken for food. Many people plead that nasty medicines are valuable because they teach that the result of non-compliance with rules brings its own punishment. But the parent makes a very grave mistake in attempting to appeal to the infant's intelligence at a period when the emotions and not the intellect are the main important factors in its life. The mother should strive to cause the child, in the first few months of its life, to have as few thoughts or feelings, either positive or negative, connected with this matter, as possible. She should not insist upon the importance of this function in any way, either emotionally or intellectually.

Ideas of modesty, of secrecy and of unpleasantness in connection with bodily functions should not enter into a child's life for the first three or four years. It should learn to be perfectly natural, to ask in an ordinary tone of voice when it requires assistance and, generally speaking, should look upon these functions as no more offensive than any other natural function. It will not have the slightest difficulty in conforming to a *conventional* standard of modesty when it is taught to do so at a much later age, *but it will then do so intellectually rather than emotionally*, and quite apart from any *feelings* of modesty, which should never be present.

THE SECOND STAGE OF INFANT DEVELOPMENT

It must be realized that the function of sex is a perfectly normal function with its beginning in early infancy, and that there is no need for

parents to be horrified when their children, between the ages of one and four, show interest in the organs of sex. There is no such thing as sudden sexual development at puberty, but a gradual growth and evolution from infancy to the normal adult condition. The child who has been correctly educated up to the time when it first begins to display interest will, without difficulty, place its energy outside itself on to other interests.

Parents should also understand that the habit of masturbation, so much deplored by them, is extremely common in nature, even among animals, and is almost universal in the human race, and young children of both sexes between the ages of one and four years practise it frequently. It is desirable and natural that the child should 'grow out of' the habit somewhere about the age of four, or prior to that age. But if a child has already become accustomed to receiving strong excitations of an oral or anal character it has already grown more interested in its own physical feelings than should be the case, and its tendency is to place an equally accentuated self-interest upon any new sensations which it may discover. Earlier training will to some extent determine how much interest it shows.

It is extremely common for parents to slap the child's hands, or resort to other methods of forcibly preventing it from touching itself. When the intelligence and imagination have developed, they attempt by moral lectures, or by the instillation of fears, to frighten the child out of the habit. Every one of these methods is not only absolutely and definitely wrong, but may tend to increase the habit and do definite harm to the child's mind in other ways. By these methods, the importance of particular parts of the body is over-emphasized and the child comes to regard them as indecent and shameful. Fears of loss of this fresh pleasure are also likely to develop very acutely and there may result an 'inferiority complex' in connection with all its undertakings for the rest of its life, especially if the habit of fear of loss has already been acutely developed as previously described.

What can be done to engage a child's interest outside itself and so encourage the disappearance of the habit? Most parents labour under the

delusion that all children should be in bed at certain hours of the day, regardless of whether they are sleepy or not. But a child should not be put to rest when it is wide awake, for, its external interests having been taken away from it, it turns to itself to find a plaything. Not only that, but intelligence between the ages of one and three is beginning to develop, and imagination is becoming very strong. The child therefore may occupy its time by turning its emotion and its imagination towards itself, and may develop the habit of living in the imagination rather than in fact, and of postponing its activities by a mere accomplishment in the imagination, and thus may learn some of the worst characteristics which will handicap it in later life. The number of examples of this which we see round us in daily life, where people have lost all idea of their goal, and are continually living in a state of what may be termed fore-pleasure, is almost endless. Such people are always going to do something, but never do.

Let me emphasize that modern research shows positively and definitely that, in itself, masturbation, even carried on throughout life, does not do the slightest organic harm. There is only one harmful thing about auto-sexuality, and that is that it very much accentuates the vicious circle in which interest is centred on the self. This is very important, since this type of self-interest leads not only to neuroses but also to overweening vanity and suchlike faults. A great deal of harm is done by forcing children to believe that damage, physical or mental, may result, for the suggestion of ill-health or inferiority will so work upon their mind as actually to bring about ill-health and feelings of inferiority. Parents should *never* hint that any trouble whatsoever will arise from the habit. Parents can assist the growing through this auto-sexual stage by watching what the child's interests are, and allowing it to develop them. Let it have plasticine within reach as soon as it has learned not to eat such a substitute for clay or mud or sand. Wooden bricks, or balls, or primitive toys should always be within reach, as soon as it has any intelligence at all to deal with them. Dolls and locomotives are out of place at this early age, and even at a later age tend to encourage more phantasy than is good for a child.

Choice of toys should be left to the child as far as possible. Boys should be allowed to play with dolls if they choose, and girls with tools. Suggestions as to the type of play suitable for a child should never be made on the grounds of sex, for there is by nature no temperamental difference in the child on account of sex until it is forced upon it by the ideas of adults.

If we have to deal with a child in whom the earliest part of its life has not been of an ideal nature, and who may have reached the age of six or seven years, the case is somewhat different. It will be necessary to speak to it on the subject, but again, any resort to fear or punishment must be avoided. The rudiments of sex knowledge should be communicated perfectly frankly and without shame, and its intellect appealed to on the real facts of the case—it should learn that its habit is infantile, leads it to taking too much interest in itself, and becoming selfish, and not paying enough attention to things outside itself. Simultaneously, every opportunity should be given it of outside interests. It should be allowed to get quite tired before it is put to bed and allowed in bed as much outside interest, such as toys or books, as possible. Several children that I have known have recently been dealt with on these lines, and the result has been perfectly satisfactory.

THE APRIL ISSUE

Evelyn Wrench

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THE NURSERY CHILD

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FOR BOYS AND GIRLS FROM 14 TO 18 YEARS OLD

The Form Room Book (Senior); Dent, 1s. 9d. *The Curtain Rises*, edited by J. Compton—six short plays by various authors; Methuen, 2s. *Diminutive Dramas*, by Maurice Baring, especially *Rehearsal* and *Catherine Parr*; Heinemann, 6s. *Poetasters of Ispahan*, by Clifford Bax, *Price of Coal*, by Harold Brighthouse, *Bishop's Candlesticks*, by Norman McKennel, from *Nine Modern Plays*; Nelson 2s. *Alkestis* (Euripides), *Antigone* (Euripides), edited by E. Fogerty; Allen & Unwin, 1s. each. *Knight of the Burning Castle*, by Beaumont and Fletcher; Wells, Garden, Darton & Co., 1s. 6d. *Shoemaker's Holiday*, by Dekker; French, 2s. *Palace of Truth*, by Gilbert; French, 1s. *Prunella*, by Laurence Housman; French, 2s. 8d. *The Chinese Lantern*, by Laurence Housman; French, 3s. 6d. *Countess Cathleen*, by W. B. Yeats; Fisher Unwin, 2s. *Land of Heart's Desire*, by W. B. Yeats; Ernest Benn, 3s. 6d. *The Hourglass*, by W. B. Yeats; French, 11d. *Spreading the News*, by Lady Gregory; Putnam, 1s. *The Rising of the Moon*, by Lady Gregory, from *One Act Plays—II*; Harrap, 3s. 6d. *The Dear Departed*, by Stanley Houghton; French, 1s. *Two Gentlemen of Soho* (5m, 3f), by A. P. Herbert; French, 1s. *Double Demon* (2m, 11f), by A. P. Herbert; Basil Blackwood, 1s. 6d. *Aucassin and Nicolette* (22c), by Clifford Bax, from *Antique Pageantry*; Henderson's, 6s. *John Kemp's Wager* (13c), by Robert Graves—a Village Drama with Songs and Dances; Blackwell, 3s. 6d. *X = O*, a heroic tragedy of the Trojan War (6c), by John Drinkwater, from *One Act Plays of To-day*; Harrap, 2s. 6d. *Macaire, Admiral's Guinea*, by Stevenson and Henley; Macmillan, 6s. 6d.

Pasteurization of Milk

The Editor

The New Era

5th February 1931

DEAR MADAM,

I write to acknowledge with many thanks the complimentary copy of the *New Era* with which you have favoured me. It is a most interesting number.

I do hope most sincerely that you will do everything possible to encourage the low-temperature pasteurization of milk as a precautionary measure to prevent the intestinal infections of childhood, especially abdominal tuberculosis, which is now almost entirely confined to those country districts where milk is not pasteurized.

In days past, opposition to pasteurization has come from the farmers who are the primary producers of the milk trade. Pasteurization, naturally, must increase the costs and charges of the milk-distributing trade which in the interests of the farmer should be kept as low as is consistent with ensuring the safety of a perishable food.

Unfortunately, tuberculosis among cattle is still present in many milch herds, and when the farmers come to realize that a fear of tuberculosis is responsible, to a considerable degree, for the small amount of milk which is consumed per head of population in this country, as compared with the United States of America, when they realize that clean, modern methods in the farms, together with pasteurization and bottling of milk, restore confidence in milk production and distribution, there will be an immense increase in the demand for milk and milk products as food, not only for children but also for adults.

The value of milk as a food for children of school-age is now generally recognized as a result of controlled experiment.

Low temperature pasteurization does not impair the nutritive value of milk, and yet the milk is much safer as a consequence of the pasteurization process.

The present method of grading milk places far too much reliance upon a negative (double intradermal) tuberculin test, which may be misleading, and, in addition, in the case of Grade A (T.T.) milk the test is only performed at long intervals of six months.

When a child is admitted to my wards as a suspicious case of abdominal tuberculosis, sent into hospital possibly by a doctor who has known the child since birth, we do not rely upon a negative tuberculin test as an immediate answer to the doctor's inquiry. That child remains under observation for many weeks in hospital, and expert examinations are repeatedly made by radiologist, biochemist, bacteriologist and physician, before a reliable opinion can be returned on the diagnosis of the case to the doctor in question.

Yet we are asked to feed our children upon 'raw' milk supplied from some remote country district, where the milking has been performed with care and cleanliness, merely on the assurance that

at some time, in the previous six months, a negative tuberculin test was obtained by an expert veterinary surgeon from the cow supplying the milk, which is therefore designated as 'tuberculin tested'.

The risk is too great for the children.

Adults avoid that risk. They pour a small quantity of milk into tea at a temperature of 200 degrees Fahr., or they drink scalded milk with their coffee.

I am well aware of the immense improvements in dairy farming during recent years, of modern milking sheds and byres, of cleanliness in milking, of regular herd inspections by veterinary surgeons. These improvements will be maintained, they must be maintained, and in the course of time gradually perfected.

But, in addition, milk from all sources, if sold for food, should be pasteurized, and *pasteurization should be a compulsory public health measure enforced by legislation.*

It may well be argued that such regulations, which will undoubtedly increase the costs of production and distribution, will in turn lead to an appreciable rise in the cost of retail milk. I do not believe that a rise in retail price resulting from such causes, even supposing that it took place, will lead to a fall in demand which in turn would be followed most certainly by a diminution in supply, for the nation is well aware that milk and milk fat are the most valuable of all foods and that they are irreplaceable in the diet of the healthy, growing child.

The main trouble of the dairy farmer at the present time is that retail milk both in town and country is always meeting an unfair competitor at a cut-throat price, the condensed skim-milk, which, useless for the nutrition of children, can always undersell the pasteurized supply of full cream milk from the home farm.

If this unfair and undesired competitor were refused the market we should no longer hear that the British farmer is unable to bear the costs of a safe supply and a safe distribution which are demanded as requirements of vital importance for the public health.

I am, Madam,

Yours truly,

H. C. CORRY MANN.

25 Harrington Gardens,

London,

S.W.7.

P.S. Since writing the above letter *The Times* of the 14th February records that the cause of the present epidemic of nearly ninety cases of Paratyphoid Fever at Epping has been traced by the Medical Officer of Health, Dr. H. A. Watney, to a raw milk supply. When are our legislators, even at long last, going to listen to the opinion of the medical profession which was stated in no uncertain terms by Lord Moynihan in the House of Lords on the 10th February?

14th February 1931

H. C. C. M.

International Notes

INTERNATIONAL SERVICES OFFERED TO TEACHERS

The New Education Fellowship has been in existence for fifteen years and now has sections and representatives in twenty-nine countries. Its main purpose has been to draw together individuals all over the world who are seeking to adjust education to modern needs, and to keep them informed, through its international conferences, magazines and commissions, of educational experiment and progress everywhere.

During this period, through its many contacts, the Fellowship has been able to gather information concerning education as a whole from the nursery school to the university. The Bureaux of the Fellowship, particularly its London Headquarters, are being increasingly used by teachers from all nations. This has made it necessary to establish a service membership for educational associations, so that on a larger scale it may serve these teachers.

Service Membership

In asking associations in different countries to take up this form of membership, the Fellowship does not in any sense form them into a federation. The function of the Fellowship differs from that of the World Federation of Educational Associations in that it is designed to offer bureau services to teachers travelling in all parts of the world.

Service Membership is a means by which individual members of an association may secure the services of the Fellowship, and associations give support to an organization that is of use to their members. Individuals often cannot afford to join an international as well as a national organization, but by this means members of a national association can obtain the privileges of international membership of the New Education Fellowship.

Schools may also become Service Members of the Fellowship, in which case services are offered to members of the staff and to students.

Services Offered

1. *Bureaux*—Service Membership will entitle any member of the association holding it to call in the assistance of the Fellowship's Bureaux and representatives in 28 countries.

The Bureaux assist inquirers by (a) planning visits ; (b) arranging tours and giving introductions ; (c) advising parents in their choice of schools ; (d) replying to queries of all kinds connected with education.

In Europe, the Fellowship has offices of its own in London (International Headquarters) and Paris, and works in co-operation with the Bureau International d'Education at Geneva, the Zentral Institut in Berlin and the Austro-American Institute in Vienna. Where there are no organized bureaux the Fellowship's representatives assist inquirers.

In America the Fellowship works in conjunction with the Progressive Education Association, with which it is affiliated.

2. *Delegate at International Conferences*—The Fellowship holds international conferences every two or three years. At the last, held at Elsinore, Denmark, over 2,000 teachers attended from forty-three countries. The next conference will be held in France in August 1932. Service Membership entitles an association to free admission of a delegate to each international conference.

3. *The New Era*—The association receives a copy of *The New Era*, an international monthly published in London and edited by Mrs. Beatrice Ensor, which records the progress of education all over the world.

4. *Membership Card*—A membership card, issued to associations becoming Service Members, bears the names and addresses of the Fellowship's representatives in every country. When travelling abroad, members of these associations are supplied with a general letter of introduction so that they may be able to make free use of the services of the Fellowship wherever they go.

Subscription

The Service Membership subscription is £5 5s. (\$26.25) per annum.

Upon the teachers of the world lies the responsibility to foster in the next generation those international outlooks that are an urgent necessity in the world to-day. By helping teachers of one country to meet those of another, the development of the best kind of international understanding which is derived from personal contacts, is assisted. Readers are asked to bring this information to the notice of their associations.

Further information and a booklet giving details concerning the Fellowship may be had from the International Secretary, N.E.F., 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

SERVICE MEMBERS

Associations

U.S.A.—American Association of University Women ; Child Study Association ; Grand Rapids Teachers' Club ; International Federation of Home and School ; Merrill-Palmer Foundation ; Michigan Education Association ; National Council of Primary Education ; National League of Teachers' Associations ; Progressive Education Association (affiliated to the Fellowship) ; World League of Educational Associations.

England—Association of Assistant Masters ; Association of Assistant Mistresses ; National Union of Teachers ; The League of Nations Union (though not a Service Member, subscribes to the Fellowship, and the Fellowship is an affiliated member of the Union).

Australia—Australian Council of Educational Research (Melbourne) ; State School Teachers' Union of Western Australia.

Canada—Department of Education, Nova Scotia ;

National Council of Education.

Belgium—Le Cercle d'Etudes de Waterloo ; La Laboratoire de Psychologie de Seraing ; La Medico pédagogique de Charleroi.

Egypt—Egyptian Educational Institute.

India—Diwan Metharam Dharmada Trust, Karachi.

New Zealand—New Zealand Educational Institute.

Scotland—Educational Institute of Scotland.

South Africa—Transvaal Teachers' Association, S. Africa.

Schools in many countries.



A British Commonwealth Conference is being organized by the New Education Fellowship and will be held at Bedford College, London, from 24th July to 30th July 1931. It will discuss both the cultural development of the British Commonwealth as a whole, and those special educational problems that, owing to race, climate and national history, are now confronting its various members. Sir Percy Nunn, Professor of Education at the University of London, has consented to act as President. Speakers well known in the realm of education, both in Great Britain and in the Dominions, will take part in the discussions. Mr. Kenneth Lindsay, secretary to the Anglo-Canadian Committee, has accepted the post of Hon. Secretary, and all communications should be addressed to him c/o New Education Fellowship, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

It is hoped that the Conference will lend support to the project of establishing in London a permanent Institute to act as a centre of research activities and as a central clearing-house of educational ideas within the Empire. Teachers from overseas have long felt the need for such an institute, which would serve as a meeting place for those interested in education from all over the world.



A new educational service to help parents and others in the selection of schools has been established by Messrs. Thos. Cook & Son, the tourist agents. The scheme has been undertaken in response to requests for such assistance that for many years have been received from all parts of the world. Advice is given free of charge, and without any bias, and information, based on visits to schools and interviews with principals, is at the disposal of those who are themselves unable to make direct inquiries. Thus English parents living in the Far East, for example, may take advantage of the world-wide organization of the firm, and be able to choose the school in England best suited to their children's requirements ; the children may be collected and taken to the school ; and the school fees paid through the firm's banking department. This service will be of very great value to many British people living abroad who are under the necessity of sending their children home to be educated. Their *Travellers' Gazettes* which are eleven in number, and circulate in various countries, are being utilized in the scheme.

An interesting development in the search for a satisfactory international language has recently taken place. Professor R. E. Zachrisson, Professor of English at the University of Uppsala, Sweden, has created a new language, called Anglic, which is pure English with a highly simplified spelling, and not an artificial language. A journal, *The Anglic Edukaeshonal Revue*, and a society, the 'Anglic Fund, have been founded, and two pamphlets, 'English in Easy Spelling' and 'World English in Easy Spelling' have already been issued to explain the principles. Professor Zachrisson, by examining the forty-two English sounds that are spelled in 500 ways, has established statistically the most frequent spelling of any specific sound. Swedish pupils of Professor Zachrisson, who had no knowledge of English, through Anglic learned to read, write and speak fluently in English after twenty lessons of ninety minutes each, and it was found that these pupils, used to the new spelling, had very little difficulty in reading English spelt in the ordinary way. Lord Cecil, Professor Gilbert Murray and Professor Krapp (U.S.A.) are among those who have declared in favour of Anglic, and Anglo-Saxon spelling reform organizations in England and the United States have expressed their intention of promoting the teaching of Anglic rather than other spelling systems. Societies affiliated to the Anglic Fund are to be formed in all civilized countries for the purpose of making Anglic the main universal world language.



Mr. Robert H. Lane, Assistant Superintendent of the Board of Education, Los Angeles, California, would be very glad to hear from any progressive private schools in England that would like to correspond with some of the large schools in Los Angeles. Mr. Lane's schools would be willing to prepare books and other material of interest to English children in return for similar material from them. Would private schools interested please write direct to Mr. Lane, mentioning this note in the *New Era*?



A School for Dramatic Production will be held by Citizen House, Bath, during the Easter vacation, at the Everyman Theatre, Hampstead, London, N.W.3, from 2nd April till 11th April. This school has been originated at the request of many education authorities, public schools and universities, and it is felt that the Everyman Theatre, which has recently been acquired by the authorities of Citizen House, will make an excellent centre and training ground for dramatic production. Representatives will be present from French, German and Italian universities and schools, and all the work will be essentially practical. The members will learn to rehearse, produce, make scenery and costumes, and will finally put the play on themselves at the Everyman Theatre. Particulars may be obtained from the Hon. Secretary, Citizen House, Bath, if a stamped and addressed envelope is enclosed.

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Book Reviews

Creative Mind. By C. Spearman. Nisbet & Co., London. 5s.

This handy volume of 150 pages is one of the Contemporary Library of Psychology. It does credit to the purpose of that series, which is to present psychology to the lay public in a way to be easily understood by them, without sacrificing authoritativeness of statement.

The book opens with a review of previous attempted explanations of mental creativity. Mere *de facto* acceptance of creativeness as an attribute of genius, on the one hand, or, on the other, Behaviouristic mere evasion, and likewise the explanatory concepts of Imagery or Combination or Form, are alike rejected. So, and with a show of warmth, are the theories of psycho-analysts, who are said to 'show little interest' in mental laws, and none of whose extensive recent literature on artistic creation is given serious consideration in this volume.

Professor Spearman then sets forth that creative activity is subject to the laws which he demonstrated in his two large earlier books, as determining 'The Nature of Intelligence' and 'Abilities of Man'. To begin with, we have the three Qualitative Principles of Knowing. First, 'a person tends to know his own sensations, feelings and strivings'. Second, 'when two or more items are given, a person may perceive them to be in various ways related'. Third, 'when any item and a relation to it are present to mind, then the mind can generate in itself another item so related'. Then there are also five Quantitative Principles: a mind keeps 'its total output constant in quantity'; 'The occurrence of any mental event inclines it to occur subsequently'; such an occurrence also, however (by fatigue) 'produces an influence opposed to its occurrence afterwards'; 'the energy of the mind is partly under the control of the will'; and, finally, there exist certain (physiological) 'primordial potencies' due to heredity, illness, &c.

The author illustrates the application of the enumerated laws partly in science, invention, play, dreams and other mental operations. But above all does he make the arts themselves contribute to his thesis. In doing this, he shows an extent of familiarity with the vast range of painting, sculpture, literature, and music, which to the reviewer, who has long known him personally as well as in the capacity of an academic psychologist, still comes as an amazing revelation.

Out of all the eight principles it is the third, that of the 'eduction of correlates' from 'an item and a relation to it', which turns out to be most fruitful. The practical applications of this furnish the chief part of the material presented. They are handled so concisely, albeit clearly, that this rather small book contains more meat than most of the treatises which have been written on aesthetics.

That one of his Principles on which Prof. Spearman has not enlarged to the extent that might have been

wished, is that which he calls 'Conative Control'. His book might be considered defective in not giving ampler treatment to the factors of desire and emotion. Failing to expound more adequately the subtle processes by which wish and feeling transfer themselves by association from one object to another, and find symbols to represent what is denied more frank expression, the present book deals with processes *per se* to the implied disparagement of the importance of the primal sources of the creative drive. Why an artistic type of satisfaction is sought by a given person when other persons whose minds work by the same Qualitative and Quantitative principles, find their satisfaction in quite other ways, remains still obscure. For all that, however, *Creative Mind* deserves the appellation 'brilliant'. Its teachings will find application in the testing, undoubtedly, and almost as surely in the training, of the artistic possibilities of children.

A Book of Marionette Plays. By Anne Stoddard and Tony Sarg. Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London. 4s. 6d.

Tony Sarg is the most famous puppeteer in America. With the help of Anne Stoddard he has written a book containing plays suitable for marionettes. The plays are short and manageable, and the book contains instructions as to how to effect the more difficult feats that the puppets have to perform. The drawings of the puppet figures, unfortunately, are not particularly original. The most valuable portion of the book is Tony Sarg's explanation of how to make a modern puppet, which is simple and clear and well illustrated. The use of Wood Plasteline and the formation of the hands are devices that he took from the work of Richard Odlin, an interview with whom is given on page 89.

The Small Stage and its Equipment. By R. Angus Wilson, with an Introduction by Sir Barry Jackson. Allen & Unwin, London. 5s.

The author explains clearly and with excellent diagrams the technical details of good stage construction, necessary apparatus and equipment. It is the stage itself and the contribution which it is capable of making to successful production with which he is concerned. Americans have made a special study of these technicalities, and it is high time that more attention were paid to them in England. Therefore this excellent little book is to be welcomed; it is the sort of thing that is very much needed. Sound advice is given in every process from the planning and building of the platform itself to the installation of lighting sets, capable of producing artistic scenic effects. As economy, efficiency and artistry combined are its objective, the book should prove an invaluable aid to all who are responsible for the designing and equipment of small stages in schools, colleges, institutes, and for amateur performances generally. A bibliography of play production and a glossary of technical terms add to its usefulness.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

Wider Horizons In his masterly review, *Since Then*, Philip Gibbs tries to make us

aware of the new conditions of life in this post-war world. His pen etchings of the mutilation of Hungary, the German revolution, the regeneration of Poland, the state of England, France and America, the martyrdom of Russia, are sketched by a man who knows the peoples of the world and who is bent upon getting them to know and understand each other. Every parent and teacher should read the final chapter entitled 'The Post-war Mind', in which, describing pre-war attitudes, he writes :

' Looking back to the world before the war it is astonishing to think how much the majority of peoples were walled in by narrow enclosures of the mind. Behind their national frontiers they lived isolated from their neighbours. . .

' And the ordinary folk were deeply and profoundly ignorant of the world beyond their own frontiers. They had very little interest in world problems because their imagination was bounded by their own parish, and their own local affairs. They disliked " foreigners ", whoever they might be. Their ideas about life—I mean the ideas of peasants, small shopkeepers, city clerks and the middle-class masses who make up the bulk of a nation—were traditional, parochial and national. Their minds moved slowly. Even their bodies did not get much beyond their own cabbage patch or workshop, in spite of railway trains.'

The author goes on to depict the beginning of the change and to describe how the ' imagination of mankind was shaken out of its old ruts by that enormous conflict ' [the war]. He refers to a talk he had with Sir Philip Sassoon just after Sassoon had made an air survey of the British Empire. Asked by Gibbs what he had brought back from the experience,

Sassoon answered : ' A new mind. It gives one an entirely different conception of life. It is like Einstein's theory of relativity. Time and Space take on different values. . . Those little countries like Greece and Palestine—one hops over them. Their little quarrels, revolts, nationalities, races—how small they seem!'

Those words illustrate the growing change in the mentality of mankind to which we often refer in these pages. To quote Gibbs again : ' The pace of the rhythm of life has been speeded up. The mind of the world is moving fast, and in half a century from now there will be a different kind of world beyond one's present imagination. There may be fewer divisions between races and nations. There may be greater wisdom and happiness for the average man and woman. Who knows ? '

Ethical Evolution But this happiness is not likely to manifest itself as long as fear and suspicion separate classes and nations. True, science has succeeded in unifying the world by breaking down the barriers of time and space, but it remains for ethics and philosophy to enter the race before it is too late to prevent the wonders of science being turned to destructive ends. The majority of us are still swayed by primitive instincts and the number of men and women who can consider vital questions impersonally is lamentably few. Party politics, denominational beliefs, nationalistic outlooks and gross ignorance blind us. Despite the liberation from the ' walled-in view ' of pre-war days we are shutting ourselves in mental fortresses and preparing for trouble. If educators cannot be above such prejudices, what hope is there of their creating a right attitude in children in school ?

Guarantee Against War We wish to emphasize this month the need for the widening and expansion of our thinking processes, for one of the most urgent problems before education to-day is how to stimulate and guide this new type of thinking in the minds of the young. What, for instance, are the conditions which will best create it?

Enlightened parents and a good modern type of school—whether elementary, 'prep', secondary or public—count for most. In England there is growing dissatisfaction with the old-fashioned type of 'prep' school and with the traditional Public School. Each has done wonderful work in its time, but neither the one nor the other is adapting itself to changing conditions. Even the younger generation of masters within these schools are dissatisfied and the 'newer' schools are full to overflowing. Abinger Hill, described by Evelyn Sharp (see page 135) is an excellent example of the new 'prep' school. There are not enough of these schools to meet the demand, and there are still fewer 'new' Public Schools. The state schools are adapting themselves far more quickly, and a number of progressive educational programmes have been introduced into both the elementary and the secondary schools.

Within the school *right methods of work* lead to alert thinking and tolerant attitudes. Individual study and group or class work both have their place and, in our opinion, both are essential if the child is to proceed according to his capacity, if he is to learn to think for himself and to depend on his own judgment, and yet to merge his own life with that of the community. The first of a series of articles dealing with focal points in modern education appears on page 121 and tackles this very problem of the *juste milieu* between individual and group work.

Every subject in the curriculum, if handled rightly, can stimulate clear thought and right thinking processes, but *history* and the humanities exert the greatest influence in preparing young minds for 'wider horizons' of thought. In the hands of progressive teachers, history, enjoyed and relived, is the best guarantee against international misunderstanding.

Travel is another means of broadening the mental outlook and of laying the foundation of real international and inter-racial sympathy and

understanding. As Wickham Steed says, it is only possible to become an internationalist by a knowledge of other countries and of other languages. Evelyn Wrench implies the same when he says that we should regard it as a duty to take our children abroad. Happily, school journeys and exchanges and family travel are becoming popular. The School Journey Association, the Wandervögel, the Friendly Adventurers, international Scout Jamborees, youth tramps and camps are bringing the youth of all classes and nations together.

Yet these—enlightened parents, modern schools, right methods, history, travel—are not, in themselves, enough. What is needed is a stirring of the depths. In matters of ethics a child's instinct is unerring; he instantly detects lip service, and himself renders lip service in return. He may glibly subscribe to any views that are put before him, he may actively try to get to know children of other nations and lands, and yet still hold himself (as so many adults do) closely within the stronghold of his own nationality. It is a deep and true understanding of other peoples, a real international awareness—not an easy cosmopolitanism—that parents and teachers must develop in themselves before attempting the task of developing it in children.

It is this deep international awareness that is the basis of lasting world peace, and that will lead to a new faith—to 'that new faith in broader camping grounds of fellowship among the leaders of to-morrow'. It is surely the *only* way to educate for peace. Mr. Channing Pearce, in his book *Chiron: The Education of a Citizen of the World*, stresses the need to train youth to lead rather than to govern or dominate.

Mr. Pearce is trying to solve the problem in his experimental school in Switzerland. Alpine College may be termed a Public School under revision. Its aim is the education of world citizens who are also patriotic citizens of the state to which each belongs. The school is organized into separate national groups, each in its own house and with its own group staff and headmaster. The group staffs are interchangeable and are controlled by a central directorate. It is an interesting experiment, the result of bold thinking, and we hope to hear a great deal more about it in the near future.

Mr. Wickham Steed on Internationalism & Peace

MR. WICKHAM STEED, the well-known historical writer and journalist, put forward some very interesting views on educating for peace in an interview he kindly granted the *New Era*.

‘In the first place,’ he said, ‘when you talk of cultivating an international point of view, what do you mean? Do you mean internationalism or cosmopolitanism? For there is a great difference. The ‘international’ is the man who takes his own nationality as a starting point, and seeks, in the light of it, to understand and to sympathize with other nations. The cosmopolitan is the man who denies the value of national preference, and loses his national identity in the assumption that all other nations are as good as, if not better than his own. The international rather than the cosmopolitan outlook is the thing to cultivate in children.

‘But how can one become internationally-minded? Only by a knowledge of other countries, by a knowledge of other languages. And by language I do not mean only grammar. No one minds slight mistakes in grammar; but speak to a Frenchman, a German, an Italian, a Russian, with a bad accent in his own language, and he is instantly put off. The bad accent keeps the fact that the speaker is of another race always uppermost in the mind. But speak to one of another nation in his own language as he himself speaks, so that he is not conscious of the difference of race, and you have at once the basis for understanding and friendship. This cultivation of a good accent is of paramount importance—accurate grammar is a comparatively minor consideration.

‘What, again, do you mean by educating for peace? We have not yet begun to know how we should educate for peace. All we have so far achieved is the beginning of education for a state of non-war. But a state of non-war is not necessarily a state of peace. There is all the difference in the world between the two. We have far yet to go before we can begin really to educate for peace. It is not enough to insist that man, who during all the ages of his existence has lived by and delighted in war, must

now live by and delight in peace.

‘War means a different thing to different nations. To France, who during the past century has always been the invaded, it means one thing; to Germany, who during the same period has always been the invader, it means another; to Britain, who has sometimes sought her ‘Continental sword’ in Europe, it means something different again; to the United States, removed from Europe, overlooking and overlooked by the East, it means something different yet again. So that, though all nations are one in fearing war, their thoughts of it, their reasons for fearing it, are dissimilar.

‘The renunciation of war by the Kellogg Pact is a step in the right direction. Yet one thing implied in this step is hardly anywhere appreciated. And that is, that if one renounces war, one renounces also neutrality. Neutrality is legal only when war is legal. War has been made illegal, and neutrality is therefore perforce also illegal. If two nations, war being now made illegal, decide, attempts at arbitration having failed, that their only recourse is to arms, it follows that no other nation which has renounced war can remain neutral; they must all join in saying to the war-makers: “This shall not be. You are breaking the law which is for the good of all nations, and break this law you shall not.” When the nations, as nations, realize the full implication of the step they have taken in renouncing war, we shall be a long way nearer effective non-war, and understand far better what may be meant by peace. In other words, we shall have cleared the way for our education in peace. By ‘peace’ I mean constructive co-operation between nations, and between classes within nations, when once the fear of war and of social strife has been removed.

‘And disarmament? Disarmament is a good thing. But why should we disarm? We must be certain of the answer to that question. If countries are agreed that armies and navies are no longer to be used for “private” national purposes but for the “public” policing of the world so that the law of no more war may be kept among the nations, surely individual

countries will tend to ask, not : How many more ships must I build, how many more men must I be able to throw in the field so as to ensure my own safety against aggressors, but : How few ships, how few men, is it necessary for me to contribute as my share to this police force ?

' Now the peoples, as peoples, do not yet understand these things. And they do not understand because these things have not been clearly put before them ; because their interest is not aroused ; because they are not made aware of the part they, as nations, have to play in making effective the renunciation of war. It is useless to arrange lectures on peace to which only " pacifists ", or vague-minded, comfortable people, who may feel strongly while thinking hazily, may come. The people to whip in for a peace meeting are those who think it is ridic-

ulous or useless to talk about peace. They are the people who will listen carefully, who will criticize and question, who can be convinced ; and who are worth convincing of the fact that peace is interesting and worth while because it must imply a revolution in all our international and social ideas.

' Unless the appeal of peace is as strong as the appeal of war has been in the past, unless peace holds out to the young an ideal more attractive, more heroic, than the ideal of war can now be, it will not kindle the imagination or inflame the hearts of youth. It is not enough to talk to the young of the horrors of war. The young love risk and danger. It is the hard and dangerous task of building up a new world in and through peace that will attract generous minds. And it is on these lines that education for peace should be conducted.'

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How to give Children an International Outlook

EVELYN WRENCH, C.M.G., LL.D.

Editor of 'The Spectator' ; Chairman of the All Peoples' Association ; Founder of the English-Speaking Union and Overseas League

THE work of the New Education Fellowship must make a special appeal to all who are interested in international co-operation, because I understand that it particularly deals with the young. World peace should be safe enough in twenty or thirty years' time, when the present generation of children has grown up, as I think that they will not suffer from the same national antipathies as their parents. What we of the present generation have got to do is to look after the next twenty years and to see that the lessons of the War are not lost, that we keep the idea of international co-operation before us, and hold the fort till the next generation is ready to take over.

It is impossible to attach too great importance to the task of making the children of the various nations in the world better acquainted. There are a number of agencies that might be employed. First and foremost comes travel. The educative effect of visiting other countries is very great. In my own case, the fact that I take such an interest in international affairs is largely due to the fact that my mother and father used to take me abroad with them every year from the age of twelve upwards. By foreign travel, I do not necessarily mean going to stay in a Swiss resort at a fashionable hotel in which the child will meet only his compatriots, but to places where he will see something of the life of the nation concerned. Taking children abroad should be regarded as a duty, and their young minds should be prepared for their journey in advance by reading to them interesting books about the country they are to visit. The trip should be planned out with the definite purpose of stimulating the child's interest. Whenever possible, attempts should be made to introduce the child to foreign children of the same age in a natural way.

Stamp collecting is another agency. The youthful philatelist should be told something about the countries the stamps of which appear in his album, the pictures on the stamps should be explained, and the historical background elabo-

rated. In daily life, on a walk through the streets of London, for instance, buildings with foreign associations should be pointed out. In a large store, such as Selfridge's or Harrod's, the various articles that come from abroad should be shown to the child. Again, if he is fond of eating dates, tell him a little story about the plains of Irak or the oases of the Sahara, so as to make the countries a reality to him. When he is old enough, he should be encouraged to listen to wireless debates with an international bearing, provided they are not too difficult. Probably in the future the B.B.C., with its great desire to educate our democracy, will have a special series of international discussions for children. Whenever there is a good educative film about some foreign country, the child should be taken to see it.

In order not to bewilder the child, it may be desirable to let him 'adopt' one particular country on which all his reading and thoughts should be concentrated. If opportunity presents itself, perhaps a foreign child could be invited to the British home. With suitable organization it should be perfectly feasible to arrange an interchange of elder children between British and foreign homes of the right type. Every parent and school teacher has, of course, wonderful opportunities for making tracks in the child's brain. When children make some crude remark about 'hating foreigners' the most should be made of the occasion.

Some of the things to which I have referred may seem elementary, but, after a quarter of a century's work for the cause of promoting international friendship through various organizations, I have come to realize that some of our failures in the past have been due to the fact that we forget the simple things.

We forget the elementary fact that nations are made up of individuals, and that, until such time as we provide *personal contact* between the peoples of all nations, there can be no lasting world friendship. And we cannot begin this great work early enough.

Insurance against War

An Interview with HENRIETTA LESLIE

*Author of 'Mrs. Fischer's War', 'After Eight o'clock', 'The Road to Damascus', etc.;
Honorary Organizer of the Save the Children Fund*

‘IF I were trying to educate children to understand the children of other nations, to make them realize that they were just like themselves, I should stress the teaching of languages as the most important thing,’ said Mrs. Leslie. ‘The sound of its language gives the “feeling” of a nation; the reading of its literature the key to its temperament and mentality. But the teaching must be lively, given by the right kind of not too scholastic person, who can present a living figure of a nation instead of a skeleton of grammar and exercises.’

‘The ideal way to make children of different nations understand each other and their ways of life would be to have them living together. I should like to see a French, a Russian, and a German baby brought up at home with an English baby. I should like to see many more exchanges of classes from schools in different countries, the children going to the homes of the country they are visiting and being accepted as foster children in them.’

‘The ideas of the child are the opinions of the adult—give a child the right ideas about another nation and when he is grown he will have the right opinions about it, the right sympathy towards and understanding of it. Very many adults never see the members of

another nation properly, I mean, as human beings like themselves. They see them only as Spaniards, as Germans, as Russians, in the distorting mirror of their own prejudices, prejudices so lightly formed in childhood, so hard to be got rid of later. Members of different

nations should see each other preferably face to face with the unaided sight of their own intelligent minds, or, if they must look in distorting mirrors, then at least they should look in the same one side by side together—in which case each would probably be shocked to find himself so like his companion.’

Mrs. Leslie went to Paris for the Save the Children Fund shortly after the Armistice, to suggest that the French should help in feeding starving German children. It would be a wonderful gesture, she was told—but it would be difficult to make. It

was a wonderful gesture—and it was not difficult to make. For bitterness of feeling was absent when the help was for the children. Not long after a question was asked by the Fund of children of all ages in school in England: What would you do if you saw a starving German child? Among the many compositions sent in in answer, was this one written for a little girl four and a half years old: ‘If I saw a hungry little German girl I would take her home and put her in my bed



Henrietta Leslie

[Photo by Dorothy Hickling]

with a hot water bottle and some warm milk'. 'There spoke', said Mrs. Leslie, 'the true feelings of an unspoiled heart; she would give that other child all the things she felt she would like herself if she were cold and hungry.' To give point to the story, Mrs. Leslie related an incident that happened the day after this charming answer had been received. She was at a large exhibition, and an old lady came up to her, and said: 'Well, Henrietta Leslie, and what are you working for *now*?'

'For German children,' was the reply.

The old lady scanned her narrowly. 'For German children—I take off my hat to you—but I wouldn't do it myself.'

'Oh, yes, you would. If you saw a French and a German child, both starving, you would want to help both of them.'

'No,' replied the old lady with an emphatic nod. 'The French child—yes. But the little German—no' (with a thump of her umbrella on the floor) '—I wouldn't do it. But I take off my hat to you.' And she walked away with deliberation and decision.

'Did you notice', asked Mrs. Leslie, 'that to her the French child was "the French child", but the German child was only "the little German"? Yet the beauty of it is that of course she would have taken them both. *Only*, she was so rooted in prejudice that she thus openly gave the lie to her own kind heart. Now that four-year-old could never grow up to be like that old lady.'

A keen interest of Mrs. Leslie's is the problem of an international language. She thinks that all children should learn two languages besides their own; that an English child, for instance, should learn French or German and an international language common to all countries. The need for such a language is very great and is growing greater, and its creation would be an excellent form of insurance against war. 'And speaking of war,' she said, 'I do think that children should not have warlike games to play with or at. It is the imaginative, adventurous child who likes to play with soldiers. It is the energy, the interest, the chance, the skill of soldiering, that appeal to him—it isn't the killing of people. He has to use his brains, his

judgment, his decision; he has the feeling of power. On the other hand, if a child *wants* to play with soldiers, I should never forbid him to do so; it is bad to enforce the acceptance of any point of view on children; they must be made to see *why* the idea of soldiers (of killing other people) is bad; and their energy and adventurousness must be given some other outlet. Most children will see the reasonableness of the statement that though an individual may do what he likes, more or less, with his own life, he cannot throw away the lives of others. Let the adventurous child climb trees, saw wood, work out-of-doors, work in different materials with his hands—he won't have time to play with soldiers, even on rainy days. Help him to be constructive, not destructive. And children should be educated for peace.'

Through the Adoption Scheme of the Save the Children Fund, a school, a class, a family, a single individual, can 'adopt' a child for any period of time at the rate of £5 5s. a year (2s. 1d. a week). For this sum the child, who may be chosen from thirteen countries, including Great Britain, gets, for instance, milk or cod liver oil daily, and monthly a packet of food. Many schools have taken up the scheme; the children take the liveliest interest in their protégé; write to him and get letters from or written for him; learn about his life, his home, his ways, his country. Through this one child they get a picture in little of his nation, and are friendly-disposed towards it.*

There must, however, be real understanding behind the sympathy. The problem before parents and teachers is how to develop in the individual child a right attitude towards other nations. There is not much use in *teaching* a child how he should think of other nations. He must be able to read their literature for himself, talk their language, see and experience for himself how they live and think. The learning of languages, then, sojourn in other countries, exchange of teachers as well as school children among different countries, all these are greatly needed if we are to try to cultivate a world mind in children.

*Particulars may be had from the Save the Children Fund, 26 Gordon Street, London, W.C.1.



Collective Exercises by Children (Workers' Gymnastic Union)



Collective Exercises by Men (Sokol Society)

The Sokol (or Falcon) Society of Czecho-Slovakia was founded in 1862 with the principal object of preparing the people morally and physically for the time when they would be an independent nation. It is non-political, non-sectarian and democratic, and has a membership of 750,000. The Society now holds a congress about every five years in Prague which is in the nature of a national festival. Many thousands of men, women and children give demonstrations of free physical exercises in a huge open-air stadium, companies gathering from all quarters of the country and exercising together, without previous rehearsal, to the rhythm of music from a band stationed above the stadium. There are no leaders and no orders. The thousands of participants move and act with unbelievable precision, as if they were one person, and with the greatest freedom and enjoyment. The Ninth Festival will be held in 1932

Focal Points—I

Individual Work in Schools

(As many teachers who would like to introduce newer ways of teaching into their work cannot go to other schools practising them to judge for themselves the merits or demerits of these ways, it was thought that a short series of articles on what might be termed Focal Points of new education would be helpful. Questionnaires are being prepared and sent to a number of schools of various types known to be following different specific new methods. This article is based on answers to the first questionnaire, which covered individual work)

‘SUCH IS OUR FAITH’

INDIVIDUAL work is not entirely a new slogan. Ten years ago Sir John Adams prophesied that the death-knell of class teaching had been sounded. Most modern educators are convinced that there is a real place and a real need for individual work in the school programme. Through individual work the child is made to think for himself, to solve his own problems, to know how to seek the material that should aid him in the solution of his difficulties. He is therefore more self-reliant and is better prepared to have an individual, instead of a herd, opinion later on about the vital matters of world interest on which he will have to vote indirectly as a citizen. In the preparation for living, individual work takes an integral part. But it must not be imagined that this individual work need, or indeed should, form an exclusive alternative to class teaching. In this we are agreed with the headmistress of a notable London school who finds ‘a psychological value in class work as a whole which is stimulating and not repressive to the individual’, but who also states, ‘I do encourage individual work by every means in my power’. Acting on this principle, many schools of all types and for all ages have already been experimenting with individual methods. Sir Percy Nunn believes that we have to discover the proportion of individual and collective work. This is our present concern. Towards the solution of this and relevant practical problems a *questionnaire* was directed to a number of schools where individual work already plays a large part in the school life, and the answers supplied (despite the hurly-burly of the teacher’s already over-busy day) have formed the basis of this article, the sub-title of which

was derived from one headmaster’s whole-hearted avowal of confidence in this method.

In the first place it is of value to establish at what age children benefit most from the greater freedom in work. It is interesting, if not very helpful, however, to learn from experience that on this point there is little agreement, except that it is generally agreed that the very little people benefit enormously from Montessori methods. But beyond this stage there are those who advocate the introduction of individual work at nine years of age, while an equal number advocate its introduction at thirteen and fourteen. In one instance, even, we find individual work in use in the preparatory school stage and not again till the highest forms are reached. On the whole it would appear that the younger children benefit most from the advantages of individual work, and that it is most valuable in the activity and emotional stages. There is doubtless a large measure of truth in the confident assertion of one headmaster that children benefit at ‘all ages’.

Granted the desirability, it may be found possible to introduce a certain measure of this newer principle into schoolroom practice without fundamentally disorganizing well-established routine, and the educator will probably feel that certain subjects lend themselves more naturally to individual ‘research’ methods. To say this is, of course, to call down abuse from the extremists. In one case a schoolmaster writes: ‘By this time I think it has been amply demonstrated that *all* subjects are equally suitable. It is not a question of the subject but of the educator’. But the writer was concerned with a preparatory school, and perhaps it is true that for children of a certain age every

subject can be adapted to this method. Such enthusiasm for the individual method is good testimony, but reviewing the other opinions at hand it does not seem to be a general view that all subjects are indeed suitable for this handling. Taking the consensus of opinion, the subjects stand in the following order of fitness for individual treatment: history, geography and English, science and mathematics, languages. Certain subjects demand demonstration. Thus cookery, gymnastics, singing, dancing, music, art and craft seem to stand outside our purview here.

In the junior school the child is easily led along the paths of auto-education by means of carefully designed apparatus. For the Montessori arithmetic and spelling devices are in almost universal use. Spelling race games, jigsaw puzzles, Williamson's multiple board, Cruikshank's reading and writing apparatus, and other means are all found to lead to good results. The born teacher will easily invent games and puzzles to set his pupils off on a journey of investigation to gain some particular knowledge. But there is a certain feeling against a too lavish use of such apparatus as tending to a lack of initiative in the child and the stunting of his own inventive powers. The assignment plan is generally accepted for older children, but there is considerable divergence of opinion as to the age when this can be adopted. Whereas in two boys' schools it is undertaken as early as seven years of age, in two girls' schools, of considerable reputation, it is not considered feasible before twelve. In the first case (a boys' school) it is conditioned upon an earlier training on Montessori lines; otherwise assignment work is postponed till the age of eight at least. It is clear that in girls' schools the assignments are better adopted somewhat later, and this points to some definite differentiation in the rate of development between boys and girls, and is, of course, a basic argument for the exponent of segregation. Discounting the unusually bright lad, it appears that a boy is able with his inquiring mind to undertake his own work and will do best studying along his own lines about the age of nine or ten, whilst a girl does not profit from this scope till the age of eleven or twelve.

Once the individual work is begun, a host of

minor problems confront the educator. Excellent as the untrammelled study is, compared with the rigid time-table where the child is passed from subject to subject regardless of budding interest, some limits have to be imposed. Only in a few cases is the child allowed complete freedom to work at his or her own pace without the necessity of finishing any assignment to time. In most cases the unit of work must be completed within a specified time limit. It is proved that youngsters of nine, ten, and eleven are best given an assignment of one week, and that their seniors can undertake a month's job. In one school the girls are grafted for a day's assignment in the first two forms, aged nine and ten, through a week in middle school, to a month.

Free study periods are usually arranged in the morning, but it is generally not found practicable to allow a child to continue working on one subject beyond two school periods, because of the necessity of group meetings, which must necessarily be organized. But apart from this limit imposed by other engagements the child should be free to work along the lines he chooses.

It is not surprising to find a unanimous opinion to the effect that children prefer to follow their own choice of programme rather than to be bandied from subject to subject arbitrarily under the old rigid time-table systems, but it is reassuring to the pessimist to learn from experience that the chances are equal that he will tackle his worst subject first and leave the favourite to the last. We are told that, as their powers of organization, responsibility and self-reliance develop, they tend less and less to think of their work in terms of subject assignments but rather as a 'job which they are anxious to complete'.

Individual work demands occasional individual lessons, or at least the conference of the teacher with a very small group. The best solution is the system by which, when a set class is not being held, the educator is available to any child requiring help. It is interesting again in this connection to note that in every school from which we draw our evidence, the set class lesson is still found to be of value; usually at least one lesson a week per subject is given. On the whole the plan of calling a group

together for discussion as need arises does not seem to be carried out with success, but instead, the method of having one or two set double periods per week in subject rooms.

Objections made against individual work are often based on the difficulty of arranging assignments, since children naturally work at different speeds. The *questionnaire* revealed that this is not a real difficulty in practice. The group does not necessarily have to be regulated to exactly the same stage; the brighter child can forage along side lines; appendices can be added to the skeleton assignment designed for the average child; time saved on good subjects can be devoted to weaker ones; and so on.

A far more grave objection to any assignment system is that it may restrict the child's conception of a subject to the inevitably narrow confines of even a well-planned contract. Thus a child is heard to rejoice in having finished some subject, such as physics, when some elementary outline only has been completed. The most ardent protagonist of individual work admits that this danger does exist, but suggests that it can be remedied by a well-planned, preliminary group lesson by which interest and understanding shall be aroused before any assignments are set; and, of course, it can be warded off by arrangements for reading on a wide scale.

To-day, modern educational method is concerned with the breaking down of the subject barriers set up under the too rigid 'specialist' regime. How far it is possible, where individual work is done, to avoid the relegation of all knowledge to water-tight compartments labelled under subjects, remains to be seen, but we have received the following suggestions from teachers: assignments should include questions overlapping with other subjects; co-operation of staff in planning assignments; cultivation of an interest centre; utilization of a daily conference period when the form discusses various jobs with the form-master or -mistress; and, of course, the introduction of projects.

Turning finally from the practical aspects of individual work to wider fields and testing the moral value of the method, it is asserted on all hands that the children invariably benefit. Questioned as to whether there are not some children to whom individual work is no use, only two schools were of that opinion, and the percentage quoted in those cases was almost negligible. It is universally agreed that individual work gives scope for more industry, initiative and responsibility. Again, on the question as to whether such methods facilitate discipline, there was complete unanimity. In a girls' private school they are found to help 'enormously'. In another, they drive away any possible friction between student and staff. In an elementary school, again, 'there is no room for doubt as to the desirability of the greater freedom of such a system'. We learn, too, that the children show signs of a growth of self-reliance and unselfishness. They show consideration for others and develop charming and natural manners. Individual methods certainly facilitate school discipline.

In conclusion, we might consider whether in fact school life based on the individual method with its personal responsibility affords a better preparation for adult living than the older methods. In the words of one contributor: 'When a boy plans his day each morning and finds he has certain fixed appointments he must attend (whatever he feels about them) and certain times when he can plan as he thinks best, it seems to me to be a good preparation for adult living; and I think it avoids excessive freedom (and perhaps selfishness) on the one hand, and excess of sitting back and being spoon fed, on the other.'

A review of *The Report of the Consultative Committee on the Primary School* (H.M. Stationery Office, Kingsway, London, W.C.2, 2s. 6d.) will appear in the June issue of the *New Era*.

The Omnipotent Babe—IV

PAUL BOUSFIELD

Author of 'The Omnipotent Self', 'Sex and Civilization', 'Functional Nervous Diseases' etc.

(In the December 1930 and February and March 1931 issues of the 'New Era', Dr. Bousfield discussed the Nature of Early Training, The Unconscious, The Omnipotent Babe, The Development of Love and Hate, and The Training of Infants. The series, here concluded, is based on a book to be published later under the above title)

THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTELLECT AND IMAGINATION

IN the earlier articles we saw that the infant, which at the very early stage of its life is a non-intelligent creature, has a persistent tendency towards remaining in its pre-birth condition of satisfaction without effort and towards avoiding contact with reality. We saw there is also a tendency towards growth, activity and interest in the world outside itself. But the baby, at this early stage, has as yet not learned to distinguish between itself and what is outside itself, and therefore the extension of interests beyond its own body are always in the nature of an extension of its self-interest beyond its body into the world outside itself. This is because the primary outgoing of an infant's interest occurs before it can distinguish itself from what is not itself. One of the most important occurrences in a baby's earliest education is a gradual realization of its own separate identity, and an equally gradual realization that there is a world outside itself which it cannot control, but to which it must adapt itself. The child resents and continually struggles against

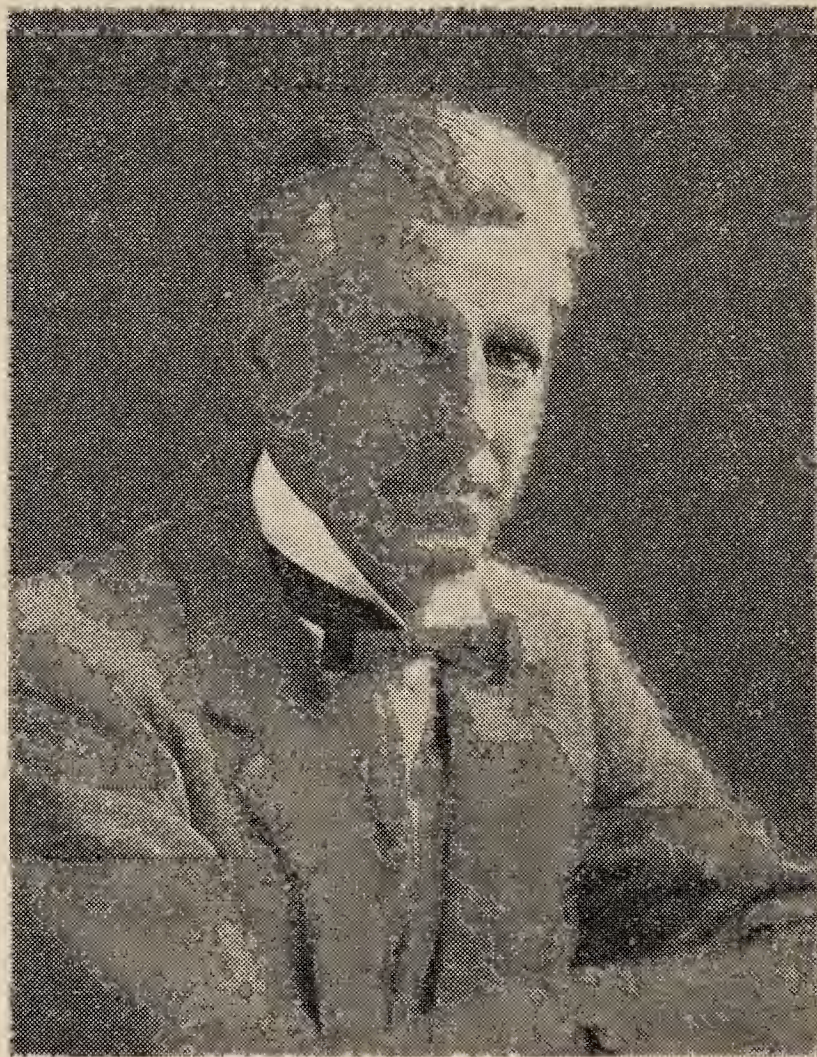
this adaptation, and as the intellect develops, it tends to use it in order to retain and develop power.

The first intellectual manifestations are those belonging to imagination. Imagination, in its simplest form, is a mental picture of something not at the moment present. It is called into play by excitations which require relief, and leads, when normally applied, to that relief.

About the age of two years, children continually begin to fulfil desires by means of imagination, that is, by utilizing a mental image instead of the actual thing. The small child desires a doll; failing a doll, it contents itself with a piece of rag tied round a stick, and thus satisfies itself by imagining perhaps not only that the stick is a doll, but that it is a real living

human being. In other instances, it calls its imagination into play to avoid producing unpleasant sensations. This is perhaps better exemplified in children at a rather later age, say, of four or five years old.

For example, a child dislikes some article of food. In its imagination it disposes of the food without pain to itself. When it is asked if



Dr. Paul Bousfield

[Photo by Elliott & Fry]

it has eaten that food, it will very likely say 'Yes'. The important point is, that the child may not be telling a lie; it has got so used to dealing with facts by means of imagination, that it *may really believe* it has eaten the food. It has not, in fact, learned to distinguish between reality and unreality, and it has learned to substitute fantasy for painful reality whenever possible; it is trying to retain, as it were, its pre-birth condition of omnipotence.

Now, reverting to the baby, the rudimentary imagination has been developed before the powers of reasoning which would enable it at a later period to distinguish intellectually between fact and fantasy. But memory and experience (which work automatically from birth), not reason, should be the original factors which lead the child to distinguish reality, and it is here that the training of the imagination on the part of the parent must be intelligently undertaken.

One frequently hears the remark that it is most important that a child's imagination should be cultivated. This is right in the sense that the imagination should be so trained as to enable the child to form images of actions, which it should then proceed to accomplish. Such an objective imagination is the true and proper use to which imagination should be put. But the untrained imagination merely fulfils desires subjectively, without any reference to future activities. It becomes a substitute for activity, instead of being the preliminary to activity. If the subjective imagination has been too strongly cultivated in infancy, the later developed reason will never be able to cope with it efficiently and the individual will always remain in a condition in which the relative values of itself and its surroundings will be variable and uncertain. Since every conscious action is preceded by imagination, the importance of an accurately trained imagination is evident. This is true even in the minor things of life. The individual who writes a letter to another must first be able to picture in his imagination the effect of that letter on the recipient and its relation to facts, otherwise his letter will not produce the desired effect: he will invariably write a wrong letter.

Uncontrolled use of the imagination leads to a large amount of real unhappiness in later

life. In dealing with fantasy pure and simple, there is no need of control; but if the imagination is being used objectively, the individual has to learn to control it at every point. Thus the habit of control must be instituted. Now control means effort, that effort which we have already seen the infant dislikes. The tendency is therefore to allow imagination to run uncontrolled—and this is the important issue. If no habit of control has been instituted where imagination runs on pleasant lines, the regular possibility of control does not exist when it runs on displeasing lines. The result will be that the person who habitually indulges in uncontrolled pleasant day-dreams will find that unpleasant day-dreams begin to occur, as soon as the realities of life force their attention upon him. He will begin to worry excessively about the future.

Worry is for the most part nothing but uncontrolled unpleasant day-dreaming. It will be found that it is never a directive and energetic imagination taking steps against normal unpleasant realities. The misery is produced by a definite and prolonged visualizing of the unpleasant fact brought into play, instead of an adjustment of oneself to meet that which cannot be altered. This uncontrolled habit of imagination equally worries about the past. Over and over again the uncontrolled imagination turns yesterday's troubles, refusing to realize that they are past and that yesterday cannot be re-lived. The person who worries either about the future or the past—and such things as overwhelming grief, or remorse, must be included as a form of worry over the past—has never learned to exercise habitual control over his imagination.

A person who, because of partly trained imagination, cannot distinguish clearly between fact and fantasy, frequently develops a bad temper. The child will stamp and rage; it may weep; all with the unconscious hope that somehow the impossible will come to pass. The man who swears when he misses his stroke at golf is doing so because he has not realized completely and at once that that stroke is over and done with.

In the ordinary course of events, as we have seen, it is necessary for the imagination to realize that actual fulfilment in activity will be

the final outcome. But even when objective imagination is used, there is sometimes a condition in which the final outcome is so far off and so habitually postponed that the pleasure remains entirely of the imagination. In such a case, what is known as 'fore-pleasure' (anticipation) becomes perpetuated in adult life to the great detriment of the individual.

I have emphasized these facts about imagination because of the storm of objection I have sometimes aroused in parents to some of the advice I am about to give. They object, for instance, to the pleasures of fairy tales being taken away from their children; but they object only because I have not previously succeeded in conveying to them the overwhelming importance to the child of the right training of imagination. Let them not worry lest the resultant individual will be devoid of dream pleasure—train they ever so well, much subjective imagination is likely to remain.

TRAINING THE IMAGINATION

The problem of training is difficult, for it is impossible to lay down rules suitable for every child. We can merely generalize. Before we come to the training of the imagination proper, I might here remark upon a matter which applies to any untruths (fairy tales included) which the child may be taught, ranging from ideas of perfection in its parents, through a whole series of fictions to the ideas about babies being found under gooseberry bushes. If we were training a dog to perform tricks, we should never think of teaching it in the first month or so of its life actions which it must inevitably unlearn a few months later; we teach it the rudiments of the trick or action which it is to perfect later. Unfortunately, we do not apply this method to children, and all the untruths, subjective and objective, which we teach them, have to be unlearned later. This has a two-fold effect on a child. In the first place, it is almost impossible completely to unlearn these things. The child may no longer believe in fairy stories, but it has cultivated a habit of thinking in fairy stories. Secondly, it may, and very frequently does, cease to have the necessary faith in the statements of its parents, which at an early age are of great value to it. I have frequently found that what a child has learned about fairies,

Father Christmas, and a whole host of other matters, has led it to believe that one or both of its parents are liars (although it did not use that word), and from this it has unconsciously ceased to regard any of their teachings as likely to be true or valuable. Imagination in the child, at a very early stage, appears to be very much like its dreams. It is not at all uncommon to find the child, at an age when it can first repeat its dreams, inform us that it has actually fulfilled some wish during a dream.

Most individuals, whatever training they had in childhood, have in varying degrees a large amount of subjective imagination remaining. It is present in the enjoyment of reading novels, of seeing plays. There is a small percentage of people in whom this enjoyment in fantasy is very slight—their subjective imagination needs no encouragement in order to produce objective imagination, their minds are definitely and completely filled with outside interests. What the imagination requires is a directive influence. It requires to be modified, to be curbed and trained, so that even when subjective imagination is used, it is used at the will of the person, and not allowed to run freely on when the individual should be active in other ways. Hence we can scarcely go wrong if we direct *all* our energies in this matter into encouraging the child to utilize its objective imagination, and wherever the subjective imagination is at work, to combine it with the objective. Hence the fairy tale from more than one point of view should be completely eliminated, and many educators, including Dr. Maria Montessori, are already in agreement in this view.

We have, now, to consider the games and pastimes of children. There are many which depend almost entirely on the subjective imagination, and this particularly applies to the use of ready-made toys at a very early age (at a later age, say six or seven years, some of these have a very definite value). I do not refer to such simple things as wheel-barrows or balls, where the chief interest of the child is centred round some activity and not round a story concerning the object. Picture-books, again, should be of such a nature that the child can imitate and paint the picture. Learning stories about pictures by looking at them has no educative value unless the stories are accurate, such, for

instance, as stories of natural history. If a story refers to nothing but an alligator and a nigger boy it really belongs to the realm of the fairy stories—though, practically speaking, it does not, since alligators and nigger boys really exist.

The child should be encouraged to do things with its hands. The more delicate the touch becomes at an early age, by use, the more does it appear to involve the objective use of the mind. A box of bricks is excellent, for the objective imagination is used in designing and building a house to suit the materials. Dolls come into the reverse category. A child has merely to give a doll a personality in order to imagine that the doll is able to fulfil all sorts of functions and to weave round it the common-places of its own life. It has little or no educative value in a child's growth. The child who has never owned a doll may still make an excellent parent later. Bricks, paints, clay, wheelbarrows, spades, and so on give fit and proper interests; they train the imagination, they lead the child and compel it to modify its desires in accordance with the dictates of reality. Dolls, fairy stories, inaccurate and fantastic picture books, leave the imagination uncurbed and inaccurate, and lead a child to attempt to utilize unreality in the place of reality, so that in later years the habit can never be unlearned; or, alternatively, leave a child unadapted to, and easily upset by, reality.

A few words on the subject of punishment of children may not be out of place in closing this series of articles. Punishment, since its only object should be to prevent repetition of an offence, should never be out of proportion to that offence, and the child should clearly understand the object and never be allowed to consider it as a form of revenge or as unreasonable. As far as possible the punishment should 'fit the crime'. If a child steals jam, by all means deprive it for one day of jam, but *let no anger or recrimination disturb the atmosphere,*

for this will do more harm than the punishment will do good. The idea should not of course be carried to extremes.

There is one form of punishment which should never be resorted to, and that is corporal punishment. Many people declare that thrashings in their childhood did them more good than harm. This may be so; but there is one real evil arising from corporal punishment which has come frequently before me in my consulting room. The child who has already developed from its parents' training a strong inferiority complex, or who has developed an intolerable fear of pain, may have all his possibilities of overcoming his weakness crushed out of him. He will become more inferior, be driven to hate his stern parent or his schoolmaster, and may develop towards evil in many other directions which need not here be specified.

THE MAY ISSUE

Lord Lytton J.H.Badley B.A.Howard
THE CASE FOR CO-EDUCATION

Grace Owen
THE ENGLISH NURSERY SCHOOL
MOVEMENT

MENTAL TESTS OF YOUNG
CHILDREN

CHOOSING A CAREER

Essentials in Nursery School Education

LILLIAN DE LISSA

Chairman of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain ; Principal of Gipsy Hill Training College, London

ARRANGEMENTS for health and hygiene in the nursery school are generally adopted ; but if these schools are to bring about all-round development of the pre-school child, other considerations must be borne in mind by those responsible for their organization. Of these the most important are : staffing, educational opportunities and equipment.

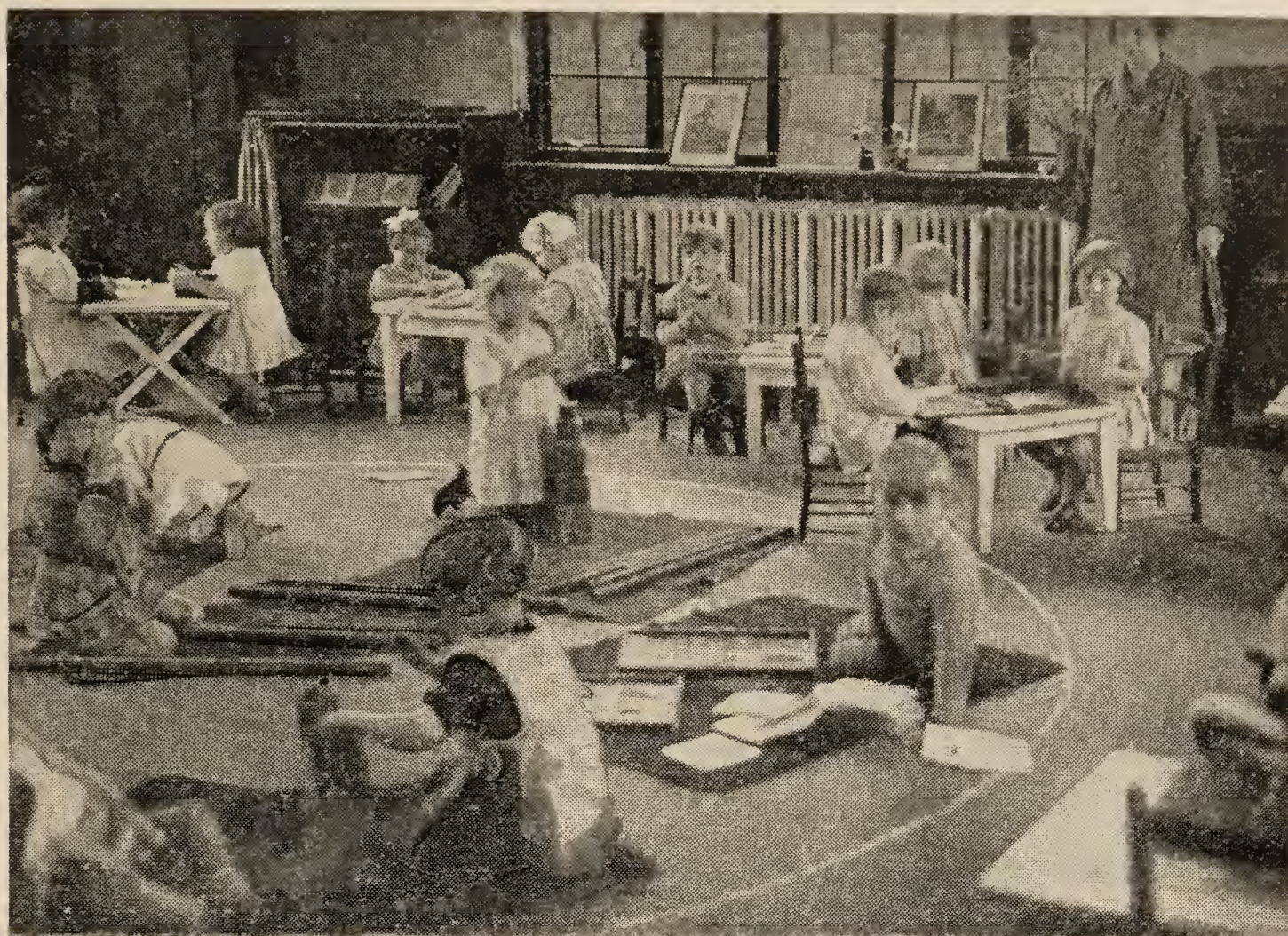
In regard to the number of teachers, the Nursery School Association has made the modest demand for large schools, i.e. over 120, of one specially trained, certificated teacher to not more than forty children, exclusive of the superintendent, and of such other assistants as may be provided by helpers who cannot be classified as teaching staff. A nursery school is not merely a means of keeping children off the street, and of feeding them. Its purpose is education in the highest sense—the full development of all the powers of a growing human being. In the nursery school there is no formal instruction as such, but the day is so organized that every child finds things to do and situations to face that increase his powers of physical co-ordination, of sense perception, of mental alertness and of social adjustment. The skilful teacher creates an environment filled with the right kind of opportunities and experiences. This environment is not something static that can be planned on Monday and left until Friday, but needs to be modified and changed constantly in order that each child may find his opportunity as he is ripe for it ; the tactful teacher knows how and when to introduce each child to his next experience.

Play, the child's way of learning, must become gradually and progressively more complex and call for the full use of all mental and physical powers as they develop. Anyone who has watched the play of two-year-olds and then of four-year-olds will have seen how, through a series of play opportunities of increasing complexity, a child is required to use more skill,

more thought, more self-control. The children are naturally allowed free choice of occupation. Individual education of children which is to be found in our best infants' schools is most necessary at the nursery stage. Here the children are very free, but they are not abandoned, and the teacher, who for the most part remains in the background, must be ever on the watch and ready to come forward whenever her help or guidance is necessary to direct or re-direct some activity, or to train a habit.

Where the number of teachers in a nursery school is small and the number of children is large, one of two things must happen. Either there can be no attempt at individual guidance or there will be an attempt at collective teaching, a very different matter from real education, unsound psychologically, and in practice impossible. Can one picture a teacher with forty or fifty three-year-olds sitting passively (?) before her while she gives a lesson on hand-washing, or correct pronunciation, or courtesy, or sharing a toy with another child ? The whole idea is farcical. Yet what is the teacher to do if she believes in the importance of training children in good habits of speech, cleanliness and conduct generally, and who does not wish her nursery school day to consist of merely keeping the children amused ? If nursery school education is to be real it must be related to the needs, interests and powers of every single child, and this is quite impossible without an adequate supply of teachers. The nursery school that neglects to create an educational environment fails in fifty per cent of its purpose.

Equally important as the number of teachers are their training and qualifications. The efficient nursery school teacher must be part educator, part nurse, part social worker, and those concerned with her training have planned a course very different, in many respects, from that taken by teachers intending to teach in elementary schools, though as high in standard, and as full and contained. No elementary



Free Play



A Balancing Exercise

[Rommany Nursery School, Gipsy Hill, London, S.E.19]

teacher, however experienced, is really qualified to conduct a nursery school without further training, and teachers who have not been trained at all are quite unsuitable.

It is necessary to remember that nursery schools are doing unique work in addition to, and quite apart from, that directly connected with the children. Many of the nursery schools are open to a succession of school girls whose regular attendance is part of the mother-craft course at a senior school. Mothers and fathers too, are frequent visitors and the training of the parents is by no means the least important work undertaken by nursery schools. How is it possible for the nursery school to demonstrate wise and scientific treatment of children, educative methods of training, a high standard of health and hygiene, if the school is understaffed or staffed largely by people who themselves are either wholly ignorant or but little informed on these matters? From whatever point of view it is regarded, whether from the efficiency of the school and the satisfactory care and training of the children, or from the instruction of the parents, or from the demonstration to senior girls and the many others who visit in the interest of mother-craft study, it is clear that it is most important that the school be adequately supplied with specially trained teachers.

Every detail of the arrangement and equipment requires careful thought and consideration. The need of attractive rooms and light, movable furniture is well understood. Cupboards, bed stores, china dressers, are not always recognized as educational apparatus though, if the child is to learn to master his environment, it is obvious that everything used by him should be suitable in size and accessible in position. One frequently finds cupboards that are so high and the shelves of which are so deep, that it is impossible for a child to find and replace his toys in an orderly fashion, or bed stores that are in inaccessible positions; frequently these are not provided at all. The result is a waste of educational opportunities, for it is an accepted truth that occupations arising out of everyday life provide better education than lessons or games planned for the purpose. In this connexion the need of having wash rooms, lavatories and cloakrooms attached to each

group of forty and in close proximity to the play room of the group, needs emphasis. Little children cannot be marshalled into regiments and taken to lavatories and to wash rooms, to stand in queues and wait their turn. It is an unnatural procedure, very boring to the child who, in consequence, develops a dislike of the bathroom and all it stands for; it is a great waste of time that might be spent in useful play. Yet this is the only procedure possible where lavatories, wash rooms and cloak rooms are situated in one corner of the building. Where each group of forty is a self-contained unit many problems of organization are solved. There is the additional advantage that groups can be multiplied indefinitely, making a nursery school up to any size without causing congestion.

In considering material environment it is necessary to say something about toys and occupations. Some nursery schools when newly opened are provided with very luxurious and quite unsuitable toys, fragile and easily broken. Many schools have run-about toys, sand pits and nothing else. The growing intelligence of the pre-school child calls for more than this and it is of great importance to have a variety of types of playthings—to attract and provide exercise for the growing senses, to strengthen physical co-ordination and control, to develop skill in handling and arranging and to make imitative and dramatic play possible. Children do not only want to run about and to dig. Such activity may satisfy animals, but the child needs activity in a variety of plays of his own invention by which he trains himself in many ways. Such play is not possible without suitable toys and material, and these are as important in the equipment of a nursery school as are beds and wash basins. It is the whole child that goes to the nursery school and not only his body. The gardens, too, need careful planning in relation to a child's interests. They can be as dull and uninteresting as the average school playground or they can be full of suggestions and lead to innumerable educative occupations.

In some areas provision for the pre-school child is being made by the opening of nursery classes instead of nursery schools. Whether or not the development of nursery departments attached to an elementary school is a sounder

policy than the opening of detached nursery schools, cannot be dealt with here where space can be given to consider only such aspects of nursery classes as are definitely unsatisfactory in that they do not provide the essentials of nursery education.

In the first place, few of these classes are conducted in the open air and therefore fall short definitely of unquestionable essentials of early years, fresh air and sunshine. There are, of course, notable exceptions, but few of these nursery classes are so placed as to be completely shut off from the noise of the big school and its playground and the children are thus not surrounded with the quiet they need. In some of them the noise of the big school is incessant. Few have adequate facilities for cleanliness, and practically none have baths. The majority have no indoor sanitation. This results in a double disadvantage, the first that very young children have to cross an open yard in all weathers and so run constant risk of chill, which is bad ; and the other, that there can be no supervision or training in the use of lavatories nor any observation of the child's health and habit ; which is equally bad. From a health point of view, regularity of habits is all important and their neglect serious ; and it is obviously impossible to dispense with training in regard to the use of lavatories if standards of personal cleanliness and right habits are to be inculcated, and if the lavatories are to be kept sanitary. This same defect occurs in nursery schools when staffing is inadequate.

Yet another point. It is frequently found that the children are expected to return home for their midday meal. Not only is it unwise for such little children to have a double journey in the middle of the day in noisy, dangerous and dirty streets, but also such practice makes impossible the organization of any systematic diet. These omissions can be summed up as lack of nurture. All children under five need quiet, rest, an unhurried day, cleanliness, regular physical habits, good food, fresh air and sunshine. Such nurture is of first importance if they are to grow healthy and strong. The defects from which our children at the age of five suffer are due to lack of this very nurture.

Nursery schools are urged by the Ministry of Health as a way to prevent the physical deterioration that occurs before five years of age. Can it be achieved if all that is important to growth is omitted, and all that is provided is extra schooling in indoor buildings and medical inspection ? Obviously, such nursery education must fail in its purpose. Until the nursery classes are prepared to provide every child with the nurture it needs, they can never be regarded as equivalent in value to, or any kind of substitute for, the nursery schools, which have always included nurture as an integral part of their organization.

Nursery classes, speaking generally, have another defect, very serious in its consequences. As a general rule, children are not admitted under three years of age. It is illegal to do so ; and this is one of the greatest arguments against nursery classes. The nursery school admits at two. The loss of a year is serious. An infant spends most of the day asleep and a clean pram or cot in fresh air can be provided by most homes. If the home is kept in touch with the welfare centre or is visited regularly, and advice given, healthy growth can be secured and usually is achieved. But at two or thereabouts the situation becomes very different. The two-year-old child is ever on the move, busily exploring his world, building up his vocabulary, fixing his habits of speech and conduct. His home is no longer adequate ; he needs space and opportunity to exercise his growing body ; he needs companions of his own age ; he needs plastic materials with which to play ; and he needs, above all, things and people to imitate who will encourage his growth along satisfactory lines. The stage of ' beginning ' is all important. The nursery school is definitely planned to supply all the requirements of the two-year-old. The nursery class that does not accept the child until three deserts him in his most critical year, and leaves him unprotected at that time of his life which, from the point of view of both mental and physical health, is all important.

Nursery schools and classes should be conducted, equipped and staffed so as to provide all the essentials of life and growth, health and happiness.

The Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, Michigan

CLIFFORD JOHNSON*

TO present a clear picture of the complex activities of the Merrill-Palmer School as they exist to-day, we must take a short historical retrospect. In 1916 Lizzie Merrill Palmer, a public-spirited woman of wealth, left money for the furthering of a cause which she had at heart, namely, the enlightenment of motherhood and the ennobling of future generations through the homes of the present.

The trustees decided that the money should be devoted to people and projects rather than to buildings. They elected as Director Miss Edna Noble White, then Dean of the Home Economics Department of Ohio State University, and Miss White has been behind every project the Merrill-Palmer foundation has undertaken. Her insight into the needs of the community and her practical power in setting on foot schemes to fill these needs, have been remarkable. The School is still growing and dynamic, and its influence increases constantly in scope and range.

In the excellent work of the home economics departments of the universities there was a certain want of perspective, for the child, the *raison d'être* of the home, was given comparatively little attention through lack of suitable technique and funds. The Merrill-Palmer trustees, therefore, decided to apply the fund to the study of children. If children are to be studied from a social point of view they must be together in groups, under observation. So the School became primarily a school rather than a clinic or home economics institution.

At that time the age group most neglected by educators was the pre-school group (two to five years of age), and the School began its work with this. In 1921, when the nursery school project was set on foot, the best nursery schools were to be found in England. Miss White

studied the movement there and took back a woman with English training and experience as head teacher. The supervision of the Nursery School has since been in the hands of English-trained women, and the School has become one of the most famous of its kind in the world.

It lives and has its being in six houses in a quiet street bordered by lawns and elm trees and homes built a generation ago. Two of the houses, with their gardens, serve as nursery schools for the fifty children who attend, one as offices and three as staff and student residences.

Most of the Merrill-Palmer activities have been built up with the Nursery School as a dynamic basis. The School provides a field of observation and training for about fifty resident women students, graduate and undergraduate. A faculty of experts in physical growth and nutrition, psychology, education and parent education, has been got together. In addition to lecturing, the staff works with the children and parents. A good deal of the work is in the nature of research.

The School, therefore, has become a complex of activities centred upon the child. It has entered the fields of nursery school education, mother and teacher training, physical and mental hygiene of the child, parent education, home-making, and family life; its programme in all these fields is balanced between the practice and teaching of the best methods known, on the one hand, and research into still better methods, on the other.

So much for the history of the Merrill-Palmer School. We may now review some of its work in more detail.

The children themselves are in the most

* Mr. Johnson is a London elementary school teacher who is spending a year in the Merrill-Palmer School in order study its methods.

That a Nursery School may give opportunity for wide-spreading research into child life and behaviour without surrendering simplicity, is shown by Mr. Johnson in this article

favourable environment for growth that it is known how to provide. The School is experimental only in the sense that it tries to discover better ways of dealing with young children. They have space, both indoor and outdoor, for vigorous bodily exercise. Play materials are abundant; out-of-doors, the jungle gym, the swings, the sand pile, the wagons and Kiddie-Kars and tree houses challenge young muscles; indoors, the blocks, paints, clay and toys stimulate deep-rooted constructive powers. Everything is adapted to children's needs; the environment is planned to allow them a maximum of freedom. This is limited by normal routine which has as its purpose the physical, mental and social welfare of the child. Like teachers and students, he must be medically examined before being admitted. In the middle of the morning he drinks a cup of tomato juice; before lunch he takes a ten-minute rest; after lunch he sleeps for one and a half hour or more. These things are not optional; they are an established tradition and there is little difficulty getting a child to conform.

The work is not remedial. Every child admitted is of good physical and mental status. The student thus observes the normal child at growth in the best environment we know. It is felt that in this way a student may gain standards that will be useful in whatever kind of work she intends to undertake: teaching, social work, parent education, or motherhood itself. The happy, positive, successful aspect is stressed rather than the depressing and problematical.

Students are drawn from many American universities and colleges, with a sprinkling from foreign countries: England, New Zealand,

Australia, China, Japan, India, Turkey, have all been represented. A number of fellowships are given each year. This year, for the first time, two men have been admitted, one a citizen of Detroit, whose interest is mainly in pediatrics, the other an English teacher, whose interest is educational.



Edna Noble White

Director, Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, U.S.A.

Parents play an integral part in the Merrill-Palmer scheme, and are expected to co-operate actively. They keep daily records of their child's life at home—the hour of going to bed, the quality of sleep, food, and so on. The statistics of physical growth and development, taken at school, are of vital interest to parents. Every month they meet at a dinner which is followed by a lecture on child-training, and a discussion. Classes for parents are held, a specialized library is at their disposal, and they are expected to spend at least one day a year at work in the Nursery School.

Inquiry, rather than dogmatism, characterizes the attitude that the School has taken up and tries to inculcate. Everything is in process of becoming; and this is what is so stimulating about the School.

The research has resulted in definite achievements. The Merrill-Palmer mental tests are being widely used for children of nursery school age. Percentile standards of mental, physical, and personality measurement have been elaborated. Case studies have been made and recorded. An elaborate piece of research into lactation is in progress at the Children's Hospital laboratory in Detroit, and a number of reports have already been published. A piece of research into problems of sleep is under way, and an extended investigation into the development

of children's teeth and jaws has been in progress since 1924. The physical and psychological stages of development leading to adolescence are being studied in the older children who have passed through the School.

Another part of the Merrill-Palmer policy is to initiate projects which can afterwards be taken on by other institutions.

There is no space here to detail the work carried on outside the School among children of all ages, parents of all classes and the foreign communities of the city, work that is constantly extending and widening.

Mention of the latest Merrill-Palmer develop-

ment must bring this article to an end. In 1930 a camp was established for children who have passed through the Nursery School and gone on to other schools. During the past year these children come back to their Alma Mater at least once a week for group recreational work, under observation. These groups are being still further developed. The camp was part of the general plan of keeping in touch with graduates and of extending study to older groups of children, and finally to adolescents. It is to be an annual affair, taking the same children year after year, and promises to be a very important development.

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 146

Books Received

- DR. BARNARDO—Physician, Pioneer, Prophet. By J. Wesley Bready, Ph.D., M.A., B.D. *The official history of Dr. Barnardo's world-famous Homes. Thirty-six Photographs.* Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London. 7s. 6d.
- MUSIC AND THE CHILD. Edited by Doris M. Champlin. *Singing, Rhythm, Instruments, and Listening ; and a catalogue of books and music, gramophone records and piano rolls.* Child Study Association of America, 221 West 57th Street, New York City. 50c.
- THE OXFORD CHORAL SONGS : *The Pretty Brown Girl ; By the Banks of Lee ; The Fox's Conversation ; The Little Red Fox ; Young Charlie—all Irish Gaelic Folk Songs.* Price 2d., 3d., 4d. *Pastoral* (Henry Carey), 6d. *O Say What Glory* (B. Marcello) ; 4d. *Happy, Happy, Happy Pair* (Handel) ; 9d. *Water Parted from the Sea* (Thomas Arne) ; 4d. *The Glitt'ring Queen of Night* (Purcell) ; 3d. *Swansong* (Schubert) ; 3d. *Singing Games* by Eleanor Farjeon ; *The Broken Heart ; The Sea-Shells are Singing ;* 6d. each. Oxford University Press, Warwick Square, London, E.C.4, and Bartels Hof, Markt 8, Leipzig, C.1, Germany.
- THE HYMN-TUNES OF FOUR CENTURIES (1930-1530). Edited by P. Dearmer, R. Vaughan Williams, Martin Shaw, and G. W. Briggs. *Includes Hymns English, Welsh, Irish, Scottish, Genevan, German, Fa-Burdens, and Amens.* Oxford University Press, as above. 6d.
- ROUMANIAN SELF-TAUGHT by the Natural Method. *For Tourists, Travellers and Traders.* By Maria W. Mendl and Gertrude Mendl. E. Marlborough & Co., Ltd., Old Bailey, London, E.C.4. Wrapper 3s. ; cloth 4s.
- A SIMPLE COLLAPSIBLE THEATRE FOR VILLAGE HALLS ; SOME NOTES ON LIGHTING (gas, oil, electric) ; SCENE AND PROPERTY MAKING ; HOW TO MAKE-UP : *general hints and special characters* ; HOW TO MAKE COSTUMES OF SPECIAL PERIODS, *with illustrations* (all 7½d. post free) ; HOW TO ERECT A STAGE AND USE CURTAINS (4½d. post free) ; SHORT HINTS ON MAKE-UP (3½d. post free). From Hon. Secretary, Citizen House, Bath.
- RECALLING THE YEARS (3d.) ; DISARMAMENT, or How the Cake was Shared (4d.) ; HUMANITY DELIVERED, *showing that War is not inevitable* (4d.) ; all by F. W. Parrott. Friends Book Centre, Euston Road, London, N.W.1. All post extra.
- A BOOK OF ANCIENT PEOPLES. *An attempt to place in beginners' hands the threads connecting the ancient history of the East with that of the West.* By Helen Corke. Oxford University Press, London (2s. 9d.), and O.U.P., Bartels Hof, Markt 8, Leipzig, C.1, Germany.
- HISTORIES : Book I.—THROUGH THE AGES. By Laurence Housman and C. H. K. Marten. *Introductory to Marten & Carter's Histories.* Illustrated by Hugh Chesterman. Basil Blackwell, Oxford. 1s. 8d.
- POTTERY AND MODELLING. *Work for the junior elementary school, already attempted in a mixed school. Many illustrations of children working, their work, and models.* By S. W. Anthonies. Pitman & Sons, London. 3s. 6d.

A Boys' University

Abinger Hill, Holmbury St. Mary, Surrey

EVELYN SHARP

Author and journalist ; author of 'The London Child', 'The Child Grows Up', 'Hertha Ayrton', 'Here We Go Round', etc.

IF the American school of Miss Parkhurst, which is the home of the Dalton method of self-education, merits the title often given to it of the Children's University School, Abinger Hill might well be called the Boys' University School. For here, in this public preparatory school, situated in one of the most beautiful stretches of English country, you may find the tutorial system being practised by some fifty boys between the ages of nine and fourteen, working in co-operation with their teachers very much as undergraduates at Oxford and Cambridge work with their tutors. The lower school, for boys below that age, enlightened in curriculum, and attractive as it is, does not come within the scope of this article because the members of it work in a group almost entirely under one mistress.

The unconventional note is struck as soon as the house is entered. The front door opens straight into the large square hall, which is a kind of common room where staff and pupils appear to meet on equal ground. A boy is being given a music lesson at the piano in the corner, quite unperturbed by the coming and going of boys and masters, some on their way to classrooms, others in search of one another or of the Headmaster. No one turns to stare at the visitor, who is taken up to the Head as he stands talking to a group of boys in their comfortable looking brown-and-orange jerseys and shorts. There is a general air of industry without hustle ; nobody dawdles, but nobody seems to be at the beck and call of an inexorable time-table. Every boy is intent on his immediate business, which generally commands his whole

interest and purpose ; if it doesn't, it is still something that may be done at his own time so long as it is done in the end, and that robs the task of half its irksomeness. There are very few occupations that do not offer some attraction to the young mind in search of novelty, especially

if a boy may fit in the doing of them as he pleases with others that appeal to him less. That freedom of choice makes him the master of his fate.

Of course the visitor does not discover all this in walking across the hall to the Headmaster. But the impression of friendly intercourse is inescapable ; and it is easy to imagine the scene when parents,

for whom there are three visiting week-ends every term, join the cheerful throng in the hall instead of being segregated in some stiff reception-room which cuts them off from the life of the school that is their son's temporary home. One learns at once, too, that the tutorial system does not mean here, if it does anywhere, that the work consists entirely of individual coaching. The whole school, the morning I arrived there, had just been grouped in two rooms for mental arithmetic ; and on alternate days the same period in the middle morning is given up to spelling. Latin, French and mathematics are also taught in class and at definite hours, though the groups are small in number, while the boys are left free to prepare for these subjects when they like, within the hours that are available for study. In the French room, for instance, I found a class of seven boys taking a lesson from the master, while others at various stages of the same subject sat about the room doing individual work on it.

Is the Dalton Plan suitable for a 'prep' school that sends its boys on to orthodox Public Schools? Miss Sharp, after a visit to Abinger Hill, is convinced that it is

History, geography, science and English (which includes literature, grammar and Scripture) are entirely free subjects, and in these the tutorial system is used. Every boy works independently through a schedule, which involves an assignment for each subject, mapping out in detail the work he is expected to accomplish within twenty-eight days. There are some twenty units of work in an assignment, each representing an average of half-an-hour's work ; and the boy who takes more or less than that time over one subject is free under the tutorial system to adjust the balance when tackling the assignments dealing with his other subjects in which his rate of speed is quicker or slower, as the case may be. The only limit placed upon his own allocation of time is the obligation to attend the few fixed classes, the hours of which are stated on the blackboard daily. The first thing he does in the morning after breakfast is to enter in his notebook these fixed hours of work, and then he can draw up the rest of his time-table as he likes ; he is provided with a chart which enables him, as well as his teachers, to check his progress during the month. The system is sufficiently elastic to suit all temperaments, and at Abinger Hill the slow boy forgets he ever thought himself stupid, and the quick boy has no temptation to feel superior to anybody else.

It is delightful, with the memory of more rigid systems in mind, to spend half-an-hour, as I did, in one of the classrooms. In the English room, while the master, young and enthusiastic like his Head, showed an amusing sort of jig-saw puzzle to a beginner who was learning through it to construct sentences grammatically, boys of various ages sat about at tables doing their work, now and then consulting their assignment, or coming to the master with a difficulty to be solved, or going to the shelf to fetch a book named in their schedule for reference or study. When two or three of the young students have arrived simultaneously at the same stage in a subject, the master will give them a lesson on it, and occasionally—in geography, say—the whole school is divided into two or perhaps three large groups and a lecture is given to each group. That the scheme of study is educational in the highest degree is revealed at many points, and one good example

I found was in the history room, where a diagram of a fascinating tree showing the comparative growth of race, language, literature and history in the ancient and modern world occupied half of one wall and was the result of a collaboration of master and pupils.

A great point is made at Abinger Hill of music, for which a charming room in the grounds is set apart. Every boy has two half-hour piano lessons a week and is encouraged, instead of discouraged as at many schools, to practise by himself ; aural training is given to the whole school in small groups, and the more advanced do a little composition, the attempt to write alternative tunes to ' Good King Wenceslas ' having produced some interesting results last term. Even the lower school play in a percussion band, which must offer glorious opportunities to youngsters at an age when to bang on something and make a noise is an exquisite delight as well as an exercise in rhythm. Plays, too, are produced ; and in the art room, where the teacher is a young mistress, you may see evidence not only of imagination in many water-colour paintings and in lino-cuts, but also of craftsman's ability in raffia work, rugs, stools, baskets and other work that is turned out. More significant is the fact that, outside the two hours that every boy has to spend weekly in the art room, many more are spent there voluntarily.

The boys do not here, as in some modern schools, take part in the ordinary work of the house, though the Head would like them to do so if the time-table allowed. But they do manual work of a varied kind ; for the school is divided on one afternoon in the week into three gangs for estate work each under a separate master, one to carry out repairs—last term they creosoted the front of the house—or to mend gates and fences ; another to do navvy's work—dig, level golf greens, and so on ; while the third comprises the foresters, who cut down trees and make rides in the beautiful woods that surround the house. Games are in a way compulsory, the case of a boy with an ineradicable dislike to them not having yet occurred, though one feels pretty sure that it would be met with understanding if it did occur. When a new boy said he did not want to play football he was encouraged to go and have a try, with the result that he proved



A Corner of the English and History Room



A Part of the Latin Room

[Abinger Hill, Surrey

so good a player that no more was heard of his objection.

It must be remembered that Abinger Hill prepares boys for the conventional public school like other preparatory schools, and the curriculum must therefore be regulated to some extent by the requirements of the Common Entrance Examination. But it is never dominated by it. If Latin has consequently to be a compulsory subject, the only one that is checked by marks, and if much of what is learnt in other subjects is not required in order to satisfy the examiners, that need not greatly affect the general educational aims of the school. Feeling that the best of the Public School system is to be found in the upper forms, Mr. Harrison tries to qualify his boys to take high places when they leave him, and he teaches some of them Greek as well as Latin ; and he has so far been justified by results. Some work for scholarships, and a Harrow scholarship was recently gained by one of his boys.

The final test of true education is not, of course, the sum of positive achievement that can be shown, either in work or games, but rather the effect, so far as it can be gauged, on the development of the immature human being. So it was interesting to hear from Mr. Harrison that, while there might conceivably be some boys who would not thrive under the tutorial system, he had not as yet had one under his care. 'In the four years since the school was started,' he said, 'I have not had one boy who I felt would have done better under any other system. Half a term is as a rule quite long enough to enable a boy to adjust himself to our methods.' He had, on the other hand, had more than one boy who had been a failure elsewhere before coming to Abinger Hill. 'The very adaptability of the tutorial system makes it work with all kinds of boys,' he pointed out, and gave me three concrete instances in illustration of this.

One was of a boy of brilliant intellect who came straight from a childhood spent in France and did not know a word of English ; in four months he had become a fluent speaker, and the specimens I saw of his book work showed it to be at least equal to that of any boy of his age. Another boy, on the contrary, had a mind so slow in receptivity that he gave the impression

at first of being completely dazed ; he was, however, merely a backward boy who had been harassed by the attempt to keep up with others who were quicker in class than he was, and after a brief experience of a method in which he was never hurried or driven but could plan his own work and take his own time over it, he easily attained the average standard of his age. The third instance was given me in response to the suggestion that the tutorial system might be exploited by a shirker. The Head agreed that this idea was sometimes cherished in advance by a boy who came from a conventional school congratulating himself that 'there will be no slave-driving here, so I can do as little as I please'. But the first time such a boy brought his chart to be checked by a master he naturally discovered his mistake and was spurred unconsciously to make good his deficiencies.

This led me on to ask whether punishments came into his system. 'Very little,' was the reply. 'Slackness brings its own punishment as a rule, through the medium of reasonable advice. If a boy, for example, has not completed his schedule up to time, it is pointed out to him that he must of necessity give up his Saturday afternoon, after football, to its completion.' He had practically ceased to inflict corporal punishment, but retained the possibility of using it as a last resort, possibly in a case of cruelty—bullying and so on—or of a boy who seemed impervious to reason and persisted in disobedience or something of the sort. 'But I should inflict it myself, and always as soon as the offence is committed,' he added emphatically ; 'and there are some boys on whom I should never inflict it under any circumstances.'

Self-government, 'except in the individual sense', is not practised in the school, the Headmaster appointing the prefects himself. He did not seem to think that the tutorial system need turn out a set of young individualists—a danger apprehended by some critics—because, at Abinger Hill certainly, there are many opportunities for co-operative effort in the estate work, the games, play production, and so on. Also, friendship and comradeship find their chance when boys of similar attainments choose to work together. But the outstanding advantage of the

system is undoubtedly the free and happy relationship existing both between masters and boys and between older and younger boys, a relationship devoid of self-consciousness or fear. The division into classrooms according to subject and not to age breaks down many of the artificial barriers to free intercourse that exist in the conventional boys' school. In this connection I may add that the copy of the school magazine I brought away with me contained no sign that Abinger Hill boys are not as full of *camaraderie* and corporate pride in their school as any other schoolboys all the world over.

I have said nothing of the very beautiful

estate belonging to the school, nor of the excellent covered playground and fine playing fields, classrooms and dormitories, all to be improved and enlarged next term. These things are all good, but may be found elsewhere. Abinger Hill, presenting the dual advantage of providing the newest kind of education while at the same time preparing boys to take a good position in the ordinary public school later on, seems to offer the best of two worlds in an educational sense. Apart from these material considerations, it remains a courageous and attractive experiment in the newer education of which we see far too few examples in the England of to-day.



The English and History Room again, with the Tree of World History

[Abinger Hill, Surrey]

First Steps to Freedom : Library Service

ALISON C. MacTAVISH

Member of Staff of King Edward High School, Vancouver, B.C.

THE organized school library is a product of the century we live in, and is becoming a recognized factor in secondary education. It is logical, when a library is considered as one of the indispensable parts of a university, to wonder why a library in the lower schools should in some cases be regarded as a novelty ; as the school library, especially that in a secondary school, does much to foster informational reading as a life habit, to encourage reading for pleasure, and to develop the ' library habit ' in the student. So that by the time he reaches university, he uses the library there as a matter of course, and, understanding library methods he wastes no time in making the most of what the university library can offer him. On the other hand, if the secondary school student stops school, and goes to work after graduating, he has the grounding for continuing his education through the public library.

In King Edward High School, the library is organized to give the utmost service to students and teachers. The book collection, numbering about twenty-five hundred, consists of fiction and non-fiction. Any book may be taken out by any student or teacher, usually for a week at a time, although those being used by a number of students as collateral reading for an assignment, are taken out at the close of school and are returnable before class the following morning. This ensures all assignment material being in the library during school hours. A fine is charged on all later returns, but as a check rather than a source of revenue. The ' fines money ' is used to buy something for the library.

Besides the general book collection there is a reference section consisting of such works as encyclopædias, dictionaries in English, French and German, year books, sets of literature and history.

As well as books we take a number of magazines, such as *Illustrated London News*, *Current Events*, *Popular Mechanics*. As there are so few periodicals, it would not be worth while to buy a commercial index, so one of the librarian's duties is to index important articles as they appear in the magazines. This index is filed on cards and may be referred to at any time, as the magazines are stored in the library. There is a pamphlet file for Government and manufacturers' pamphlets, newspaper clippings, and so on, and a picture file (still very much in its infancy). This is mainly for pictures of well-known people and for illustrations of costume, which are in demand when a play is to be put on. A bulletin board at the library door is used to display anything of interest from clippings and pictures to samples of silk or wool.

Our book grant from the Local School Board is roughly thirty-three and one-third cents per pupil. Out of this we purchase new books and magazines,

library supplies such as catalogue and book cards, paste, mending materials, and get worn-out volumes rebound.

A student may come into the library at any time during school hours on presentation of a pass either from the study hall or from his classroom teacher. The pass is checked and sent back to the room he came from. Outside school hours, of course, students use the library without passes. There are three main reasons for a student coming to the library ; to obtain extra information to help him in his assignment, to read for pleasure, or to meet his friends. The last reason is not officially recognized by the librarian—but whatever his reasons, a pupil's attendance in the library is entirely voluntary.

In regard to assignments, the teacher who has given his class a topic to follow up—it may be on any subject from a character study of Napoleon to an essay on Shakespeare's theatre—tells the librarian of it a day or so in advance. All material on this subject in the library is gathered together and placed on a reserve shelf to which the students are directed when they come in to work on their assignments. If the material in the library is slight, more books are obtained from the public library, which grants us special privileges in the matter of taking out eight or a dozen books at a time.

One of the most outstanding services the library affords students is instruction in the use of books and libraries. Each incoming class is given two lectures, one on the purpose of the library, what reference books there are in it to use, and how to use them. The second is on the classification system, explaining the intricacies (for so they seem to the uninitiated) of call members, and how to use the card catalogue. As our system is a miniature of that of the public library a student not only can use his school library effectively but can find his way about successfully in the public library.

The foregoing paragraphs have treated the external features of the school library. But there is something more to it than being a depository from which books are taken out, to be read and brought back, from day to day. The school librarian, I think, is a more or less privileged character. Having no duties as a critic, disciplinarian, or taskmaster, he is able to meet the students in an informal unclassroomlike atmosphere. It is through this contact that one is able to help individual students in their reading habits—to guide those who are keen on reading, and to kindle a liking for the right sort of books in those whose tastes lie in the wrong direction. There is always time to help to choose a book for one, to listen to the experiences of another, or to help a third over some difficulty in his work.



The picture does not give any idea of the large amount of reading and oral expression yielded by this Indian activity
[Eastman Street School, Los Angeles, Cal.]



Japan is always interesting to children. These children have enjoyed their study of Japanese life and have certainly learned something about shelter and clothing in the Land of the Rising Sun
[Eastman Street School, Los Angeles, Cal.]

Questions from Parents and Teachers

Parents and teachers are sometimes faced with situations with which they feel they cannot adequately deal. You are invited to send such 'posers' to us, and when necessary we shall seek the advice of men and women whose work is the study of young children and adolescents. We ask that you send 1s. to cover cost of clerical work involved. Questions sent in by the middle of one month will be answered, if possible, by the beginning of the month following, and those of general interest will be published in the 'New Era'

An only boy of 7½ is attractive, intelligent and lovable but seems incapable of playing with children of his own age and younger without kicking them or knocking them about in some way.

It is difficult to know exactly what lies behind this boy's behaviour without first-hand knowledge of his environment, but it looks as if he has either come to regard himself as all-important and all-powerful, through being spoilt, or that he feels superior to the other children through his natural ability. Possibly both factors enter into the situation, but in either case he would, in all probability, be better with slightly older children who would keep him in check and perhaps be more nearly his own mental level.

Isolation certainly seems the most sensible form of treatment, but the failure of this may indicate that he has not sufficiently realized the connection between it and the offence. It would be good for him if another boy stood up to him and showed him what his form of treatment felt like.

E. MILDRED NEVILL
(Psychologist, Frensham Heights School)

One is told that it is healthy for children to be left to amuse themselves, but I do not find that my children will do so. If no grown-up person is at hand to organize their play and invent fresh amusements they are inclined to mope or to quarrel. What can I do about this ?

The bad habit of dependence on others for amusement, once formed, is hard to cure. But I should suggest your taking pains to see that the children have enough of the right sort of material for amusing themselves. Toys are soon outgrown, and each stage of childhood demands a different kind of occupation.

To stimulate invention and interest, try a large sand-tray and boxes of bricks of various sizes for the little ones, and for their elders modelling-clay and a few simple tools and pieces of wood. Games of 'pretending'—shopkeeping, visiting, school-teaching—are excellent, for they require little material and afford an outlet for dramatic instinct. It should be possible tactfully to make suggestions, and then withdraw, leaving the children to carry them out for gradually increasing periods by themselves, until a new habit is established.

My daughter of 8, a boarder at a 'progressive' school, has developed untruthful habits. The Principal advises me not to blame the child for this, or even to take the matter very seriously, but as a minister of religion I feel disinclined to overlook so grave a matter. What do you advise ?

I sympathize with your difficulty. But the more we

study the habit of lying in children, the more convinced we become of its complex nature, and the consequent need for highly expert treatment.

Untruthfulness may, e.g. result from some concealed fear, unrecognized both by child and parent or from a desire to gain approval and importance or from the creative and inventive instinct finding vent in pure 'fantasy'. In all these cases it is necessary to attack the trouble itself, not merely the symptom. The cause of fear must be sought and removed; the egotistical instinct transformed into consideration for others; and the creative faculty provided with other channels through which to express itself, such as handwork, art and drama.

While this process of skilled training is going on, it may often be best not to raise other issues and above all not to increase in the child a sense of guilt, which may drive her to more deliberate deception, and hinder discovery of the original cause of untruth. The whole matter is therefore much less simple than it appears at first, and parent and teacher should unite in trying to find the method of treatment best suited to the child in question, and should co-operate in applying it.

The modern child seems to have no conscience in regard to other people's possessions. How can we teach it to respect these, and especially to care for and return books lent to it ?

When the whole trend of life sets in a certain direction strongly opposed to that of the immediate past, we may feel sure that the movement is reactionary (in the true and not the popular sense of that misused word) and therefore inevitable. We cannot recover or instil the sense of *meum* and *tuum* possessed by our Victorian forefathers, nor would it be desirable to do so. Our present difficulty is one of transition from an outworn ideal to one which is truer and ampler, but as yet ungrasped and therefore unformulated. To call it the transition from individualism to communism is crude and misleading, and yet conveys a modicum of truth. The child who borrows and loses a book unconsciously feels a certain support for his action in the changing attitude of the world towards private ownership; and the path of reform must lead forward, not backward—the old conception must be brought into harmony with the new. Moreover, as always, the ideal must be presented positively, not by means of prohibition and negation.

Thus, to descend to practical detail, a child should be taught to value books for themselves, so that their damage or loss will offend his own sense of fitness. He must respect the same attitude in the guardian of the book who is responsible for its welfare, and he must admire the generosity which has allowed him to share in its possession.

International Notes

Forthcoming Conferences

America—Fourth Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations, Denver, Colorado, 27th July-1st August.

National Conference on Parent Education, 1st and 2nd May, in co-operation with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, at Hot Springs, Arkansas.

Third Congress of the International Federation of Home and School, in Denver, 28th and 30th July.

Austria—First International Congress for Religious Psychology, in Vienna, 25th-30th May.

England—Conference of New Ideals in Education, at Somerville College, Oxford, 6th-11th April. The theme of the Conference will be 'Applications of New Ideals in Education'. Among the speakers will be Mr. A. E. Filsell, Warden of Sawston Village College; Mlle A. Hamaïde of the Decroly School, Brussels; Professor Emile Marcault, late of Grenoble and Pisa. Details from Mrs. Mary Collins, Fairacre, Wiltshire Lane, Eastcote, Middlesex.

Conference Course on International Relationships, at Ashridge, Hertfordshire, 2nd-7th April. Details from Bonar Law College, Ashridge Park, Berkhamsted, Herts.

Second International Congress of the History of Science and Technology, in London, 29th June-3rd July.

British Commonwealth Education Conference at Bedford College, London, 24th-30th July. Details from B.C.E.C., 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Summer School for Foreign Students, Oxford, 6th-27th July. Especially arranged for European teachers of English and other students of Modern England. Details from Mr. F. H. Cutcliffe, 45 Broad Street, Oxford.

Thirty-third Annual Conference of the Parents' National Educational Union, Welwyn Garden City, Hertfordshire, 7th-9th April. The Conference is open to all interested in education, and will cover such subjects as racial prejudice in children, early training in obedience, modern psychology and the child, school work of the P.N.E.U., and home education. There will be a display of dancing by students of the Margaret Morris movement.

British Drama League Holiday Drama Schools, at St. Ives, Cornwall, 8th-22nd April; at King's College, London, 13th-25th April; at Norwich, 29th July-12th August. Details from British Drama League, 8 Adelphi Terrace, London, W.C.2.

Dr. Montessori's International Course, in England in the autumn. Details from the Montessori Training College, Studio House, Rosslyn Hill, London, N.W.3.

France—International Geographical Congress, in Paris, 8th August and through September.

Germany—Teacher Training Courses for Foreigners, June, July and August. The aim is to introduce foreign educators and teachers of German to the modern German school work and also to afford training in special subjects. The courses will be given in Berlin, Düsseldorf, Frankfurt on the Oder, and Loheland. Details from Zentralinstitut, Potsdamerstr. 120, Berlin W.35.

Vacation courses at the University of Marburg from 5th-31st August. The chief subject will be German Education. There will be opportunities to visit German schools. The programme includes amateur theatricals, choral singing and the modern system of German gymnastics. Details from Geschäftsstelle der Marburger Ferienkurse, Rotenburg 21, Marburg / Lahn, or from the Anglo-German Academic Bureau, 58 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1 (which issues a booklet of Vacation Courses in Germany for 1931).

Russia—Seventh International Conference of Industrial Psychology, in Moscow, probably in September.

Scotland—Fourth Congress of the Universities of the Empire, in Edinburgh in the summer.

Switzerland—International Conference on African Children, in Geneva in June under the auspices of the Save the Children International Union. This Conference, it is hoped, will be the first of a series on the conditions of children of non-European origin.



America

A new plan is to be given a five-year trial at the University of Chicago. In accordance with this plan a student will be graduated whenever he can pass a comprehensive examination, without reference to whether he has completed the prescribed number of credits, which are included in the traditional four-year undergraduate system in colleges in America.

The World League of International Education Associations. In January 1925 the first International Club of the World League was organized. To-day there are 140 High School Clubs in the League in several countries. The League attempts to group together, through the school, the youth of the world. To become a member of the World League it is necessary for a group of students to sign an enrolment card which reads as follows:—'We understand that this League is entirely non-political and non-sectarian, its sole aim being to try for a better understanding of peoples of other countries, and to develop towards them a spirit of tolerance and goodwill. We also understand that joining this organization carries with it no other obligation than working together towards a common aim.' The activities of the Clubs vary according to the school system. There are no rules or regulations and no dues. The League's Bulletin, issued twice a year, is edited by members of the clubs. In addition to correspondence with stu-

dents of other countries the clubs undertake various kinds of group work such as, study and reports on different countries, visits to foreign centres, joint meetings of the clubs from one city or district, lectures, programmes representing music, drama and dances of different countries, debates on topics of international interest, study of international organizations at work in the world to-day. Any school that would like further information may write to the World League of International Education Associations, 521 Phelan Building, San Francisco, California.

Australia

The Australian Council for Educational Research has been formed as the result of a generous grant from the Carnegie Corporation of the United States. Mr. Frank Tate, former Director of Education in Victoria, is President of the Council (145 Collins Street, Melbourne).

Canada

A group of the New Education Fellowship has been formed in Montreal. Professor F. Clarke is President; Dr. Owen Stredder and Miss M. Gascoigne, Executive Committee, and Mr. J. M. C. Duckworth, Secretary (1441 Drummond Street, Montreal).

Canada has few private schools, only about three per cent of the total school enrolment being pupils in private schools.

A party of twelve headmistresses from Great Britain is visiting Canada this spring. The object of the visit is to bring the heads of different types of girls' schools into contact with the life of the Universities in Canada with a view to considering the question of girls from secondary schools in Great Britain taking their University course there.

A scheme which aims at providing an opening into Canadian life for English Public School boys *via* the Canadian Universities is being put forward by the Anglo-Canadian Education Committee, Dulwich College, London, S.E.

A number of teachers in Canada have sent in applications for exchange with teachers in England. Anyone interested should write to the League of Empire, 124 Belgrave Road, London, S.W.1.

Canadian Tours for teachers are being arranged this summer by the Overseas Education League, Gloucester Court Hotel, Gloucester Terrace, London, W.2. Two main tours are being arranged, one longer than the other. Approximate cost—£70 and £110.

England

The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education having completed their inquiry on *The Primary School* (obtainable from H.M. Stationery Office, Kingsway, London, W.C.2, price 2s. 6d.) are now

about to begin their consideration of education up to 7 +.

The National Union of Women Teachers (39 Gordon Square, London W.C.1) has issued a memorandum on Rural Education. In this four-page folder the main needs of rural education in England are well stated.

Great educational possibilities are suggested by the new travelling cinema which Shell-Mex Ltd., the oil company, are sending out on a tour of Britain. The cinema, which is contained in a van, will give performances in selected stances in towns and villages. The promoters of the venture believe that there are vast possibilities for teaching purposes in this travelling cinema.

During 1928 the School Journey Association entertained fifty-three boys and girls from the Transvaal; in 1929, thirty boys and in 1930 thirty girls visited England; in the case of all three parties an educational tour of some three thousand miles by motor-coach was arranged for them. Wherever possible, the children were accommodated in the homes of English children attending secondary schools. In 1930 an English school arranged a tour through Canada including about twenty-one days in the Rocky Mountains. The arrangements are nearly complete to send a large number of boys from English schools into Canada and to bring an equal number of Canadian boys to England; the period involved is two months and the cost is expected to be not more than £20 per boy. The Hon. General Secretary of the S.J.A. is Mr. H. W. Barter, and the address is 35 Parkview Road, Addiscombe, Croydon.

Interesting school journeys are being offered by the Workers' Travel Association, Transport House, Smith Square, Westminster, London, S.W.1. A school journey will be arranged for a party of not less than ten scholars and one teacher. A week in Bruges costs just over £4, a week in Paris nearly £6, and twelve days in Switzerland about ten guineas.

France

The Librairie Gumuchian, Paris, has issued a *Catalogue de l'Enfance* which describes some 6,000 juvenile books issued from the fifteenth to the close of the nineteenth century. The catalogue professes to describe the largest collection of children's books ever offered for sale, and they are carefully priced—anything up to 30,000 frs.

Germany

Frl. Editha Kühn, Member of the Educational Council of the Dürerschule, Teplitzerstrasse 93, Dresden, A.20, Germany, would be very glad to hear from any day private or secondary school in England or Scotland which would care to exchange seventeen pupils from the lower sixth form with a similar number from the Dürerschule for one month this summer. In each case the children would live in the

homes of the exchange pupils, and attend the school. Schools wishing to write to Frl. Kühn are referred to her article on the Dürerschule that appeared in the February issue of the *New Era*. Last year an exchange was effected with a school in Kilsyth, near Glasgow.



South Africa

The Superintendent-General has announced his intention of appointing a departmental primary schools committee, one of the functions of which will be to revise the primary curriculum.

From 1st January of this year education for European children in Southern Rhodesia has been compulsory up to the end of the school term in which they attain their fifteenth birthday.



Switzerland

The Bureau International d'Education, Geneva, has drawn up a report on home pedagogy, based on 140 replies to a *questionnaire* sent to forty-two countries. The aim of the *questionnaire* was to discover to what extent young girls are being prepared for the responsibilities of home making and child care, and what opportunities for instruction are being offered to young parents. The report shows that while child care tends to become general and even obligatory in an increasing number of countries, the same is not true in regard to the pedagogy of the family and the child psychology to which that knowledge may be applied.

Nursery School Association of Great Britain

The annual report of the Nursery School Association just issued records the remarkable progress of the Nursery School Movement during the past year. In England, nine new nursery schools were opened during 1930 as against nine during the previous nine years. Of these, ix have been established by Local Education Authorities, and three by voluntary associations. In addition to these there are some seventy new plans for nursery schools to be opened within the next three years. Several of the existing nursery schools have enlarged and improved their premises. The Rachel McMillan Training College for Nursery School Teachers has been opened during the year, and the Gipsy Hill Training College has initiated a third year course for certificated teachers and graduates leading to the Mother Diploma. Darlington Training College hopes to open a special course of training in September of this year. A recent appointment as one of His Majesty's Inspectors is that of Miss M. C. L. Graves, who has been in close touch with nursery schools and nursery school teachers in

England and Scotland for many years, and has extensive knowledge of the problems involved. In Scotland, three new nursery schools have been opened in Edinburgh—the Lochrin Nursery School, Tynecastle Child Garden and the Princess Elizabeth Child Garden. In Glasgow the Mile End Nursery School has been completed and handed over to the Corporation. In Perth and Ayrshire forward steps have been taken.

The Arellian Nursery School in Belfast under a voluntary committee has successfully completed its first year of work.

The opening of a number of small private nursery schools charging fees for attendance shows that the demand is spreading to all classes of society.

During the second week in February, the designs presented to the Scarborough Education Committee for the new nursery school to be erected in connection with a junior school, were on view at the Grand Hotel, Scarborough. There were 110 designs, many of which embodied the best current ideals of a nursery school building. The exhibit was of great interest as the first of its kind in relation to nursery schools.

At a committee meeting of the Nursery School Association held on 7th February, it was decided to accept the invitation of the New Education Fellowship to organize the Nursery and Infants School section of the forthcoming British Commonwealth Education Conference to be held in London, 24th-30th July. In consequence of this the usual Summer Conference of the Nursery School Association will not be arranged this year.

Address of the Nursery School Association, Great Britain : 32 Bloomsbury Street, London, W.C.1.



Mr. William Platt has sent an interesting comment on a statement made in the March 'Outlook Tower': 'Music has yet to establish itself as a natural outlet for the child's creative activities'. He suggests that this is because even to-day teachers are slow to follow new ideas. Thirty years ago Mr. Platt published his first collections of children's own spontaneous tunes, some of which were uttered by the time the child was but a year old. Mr. Platt deplores the fact that the child considered as a spontaneous musical creator by singing has not yet been recognized sufficiently, and mentions the case, known to him, of a little girl under three years of age who can invent (by singing) for thirty or forty bars at a stretch—very simple cadences, but of quite artistic value. The Froebel Society publish at 2s., a pamphlet, 'Child Music', by Mr. Platt, which treats of the musical expression of tiny children from five months of age.

Book Reviews

Mental Measurement of Pre-School Children.

By Rachel Stutsman, Ph.D. World Book Co., New York.

The present book is on many counts a particularly valuable one. To begin with, it treats of a field which has been too little dealt with, for the number of volumes which have appeared upon the topic of mental measurement have not especially related to the testing of the very young child. The tests themselves, indeed, as far as these littler tots were concerned, have hitherto been either little adapted or but poorly standardized.

Next, this book is valuable for the concise yet inclusive critical historical review of existing mental measurements in so far as they might seem to concern the pre-school child. This survey will be welcomed by many students as an excellent introduction to the whole subject of psychological testing.

Still more helpful is the careful working out of criteria for determining what is a good, what a bad, test. These differ in important respects in the case of pre-school from that of older children. For instance, the latter will respond to stimuli having little inherent interest because of a competitive urge or to please the examiner, but the smaller ones 'are little affected by these incentives; they must be amused'. Among other desiderata are: variety, independence of training; simplicity; objectivity in method of scoring; marked differentiation between age groups differing chronologically by a few months; selection of cases to be a fair sampling of the whole community; testing of enough cases to give statistical validity to conclusions; and, finally, easiness of scoring.

An account is next given of how, with these criteria in mind, the attempt was entered upon at the Merrill-Palmer School in Chicago to evolve an entirely satisfactory set of tests. From various sources likely materials were chosen. These were weeded out by selective experimentation until only the few most suitable remained. In connection with the statistical evaluation of the results, certain peculiar problems again had to be met. As an example: 'The pre-school child is an individualist. He refuses to do a task unless it appeals to him . . . Refusals to do a task do not necessarily imply inability to do them but often simply lack of interest in the test or an emotional inhibition.' How well done was the work of selecting the tests which were eventually, with suitable improvements, to form the ultimate series, is shown by a graphical representation.

The part of the book which is given over to practical instructions for administering the new Merrill-Palmer Scale (to give its official name) is the largest of all. After certain general directions, each element in the series is given specific consideration.

A final very practical series of chapters for the guidance of the would-be mental tester are those devoted to the exceptional types which might occasionally be brought to him. This is illustrated

by means of actual case studies of children who went into tantrums, or were deaf, or psychopathic, or what-not.

Play-Making and Plays. *By John Merrill and Martha Fleming. The Macmillan Co., New York City, \$2.60. Macmillan & Co., London. 12s.*

This book is full of inspiration and guidance. As far as any text-book can, it will help the teacher of dramatic work to achieve the authors' ideal: 'the primary purpose of Drama in the school is Education and not entertainment'. It is generous and well-planned, and gives freely of the authors' experience in the Francis Parker School and in the University of Chicago. It is constructed on a sound psychological basis. The child's need of dramatic expression and the educative use of the dramatic impulse are simply and clearly expounded.

Play-Making and Plays should be in every school library, for teachers of every grade will find it rich in practical suggestions. There are plays for very young children and for the junior and senior schools; advice on technical points of every description, e.g. rehearsal, costume, stage setting, make up, lighting, and an excellent chapter on the presentation of a Shakespeare play with a description of how the authors produced 'Hamlet', 'The Merchant of Venice', 'As you Like It', and 'Twelfth Night'. The book also contains helpful designs and illustrations from photographs of the stage settings used at the Francis Parker School, with descriptive notes as to curtains and properties required. The illustrations range from something extremely simple for very small children to more elaborate and beautiful settings for advanced and literary plays. Lack of stage or even ordinary platform need never deter an enthusiastic teacher from attempting a dramatic performance. In this book we read of good productions done in a gymnasium or school hall and we learn the effective use of curtains and hangings.

Part III is devoted to examples of festivals and stories which can be used as material for original play-making, but it seems a pity that among so much excellent material the authors do not treat of verse-drama and its uses. A child learns verse easily, and in speaking he realizes the possibilities of his own voice and the joy that can come from beautiful choral speaking. Part IV is a comprehensive bibliography of full-length plays, short plays, books related to the art of the theatre, and lists of publishers.

Old Plays for Modern Players. *Edited by W. D. Parry. Edward Arnold & Co., London. 2s.*

It is an altogether satisfying sensation to realize that, sophisticated as we are these days, we still thoroughly enjoy the same dramatic productions as did our ancestors of some 500 years ago. Enjoy them most perhaps because of their freshness, simplicity and

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naïveté, a direct contrast to the stuffy complexities of modern life. A pleasant feeling, as we laugh at Mrs. Noah's stubbornness in refusing to go into the ark, to hear that laugh echoing back and back fifty decades to the little English village church where 'Noah's Flood' was first produced before a devout but merry audience!

These eight one-act plays selected by Mr. Parry are ideal material for amateur dramatic societies. Some are suitable for children of middle school age, especially 'Noah's Flood' (a delightful example of the old English guild play), 'Abraham and Isaac', and 'The Shepherd's Play'—where there is plenty of action and not too long dialogue.

The author had two objectives in the collecting of these plays into book form. The first was to offer schools and village societies a group of one-act plays which, though written long ago, have a satisfying human interest and, as given here, an intelligible modern dress. The second was to provide illustrative material for the study of early English drama. The plays have been modernized in language, tightened up considerably and equipped with stage directions. But, in order not to destroy their value for historical study, practically nothing has been added and in many cases the original verse form has been kept.

A concise and interesting history of the evolution of European drama from the early religious mystery play to the beginning of real comedy, forms the introduction.

The Teacher in the New School. By Martha Peck Porter. World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y. This is undoubtedly a book on the New Education, and is written by a practical teacher. It is a description of the work and play of a teacher and her pupils in the Lincoln School. Like so many modern experiments, this one also attempts to find the conditions which stimulate self-educative activity and the *flair* for co-operating in such a way that increased learning will result. To ascertain what really happens, one must read the book, for it contains in great detail—perhaps too much detail—not merely the theory of the experiment but also an account of the actual practice of the school. Miss Porter does not believe in the entire domination of the teacher but she does not feel that the teacher can withdraw altogether from the scene. To anyone who is searching for truth in the matter of child education, this book has something very real to give. This is not to say that the Lincoln practice can be adopted in its entirety in every other school, but it is full of suggestion, wisdom, and inspiration. It is remarkable, judging from these pages, what Miss Porter has been able to achieve.

Das gestaltende Schaffen im Schulversuch der Jenaer Universitätsschule 1925-1930. Jena Plan—Zweiter Band. By Peter Petersen, and Arno Förtsch. H. Böhlaus Nfg., Weimar. Cloth, 7s. 6d. (R.M. 7.50); paper, 6s. (R.M. 6).

We have in this book conclusive evidence that dreams which many of us have cherished for years may be

triumphantly realized. It will be most welcome to all those who hold that present-day education attaches too great an importance to intellectual activities and that more should be done to develop all the other faculties of the child. In it the authors emphasize the value of practical subjects such as the various arts, crafts, eurhythmics, as a natural outlet for the activities of the young mind.

Of fundamental importance is the idea that technique should just as little be the sole aim of craft as acquisition of knowledge should be the sole aim of academic work. Their value lies in directing and strengthening the vital forces and spontaneous creative powers by giving opportunities for their realization and also by liberating the mind from harmful complexes.

The writers warn us against productive work in the economic sense of the word. This has been recommended by some educationists who hold that the work of the children should fulfil certain needs of the school, such as the making of fences, tables, and so on. Every craft has certain educational aims depending upon the love and understanding of the child. It should never serve economic considerations, as such a basis thwarts development instead of enhancing it.

This is not a book of theories, however. It is of a practical nature and sets out clearly how children have been and are being trained throughout ten school years, and how the different psychological values of the materials used manifest themselves. Interesting also is the account of the collaboration between parents, staff and children, and the psychological idea underlying their annual 'objective' and 'subjective' reports.

Since the Jena Plan is concerned with the problems of elementary and secondary education with all their familiar handicaps and restrictions, this book will strongly appeal to every progressive teacher. It makes fascinating reading on account of its clear and interesting style and the scholarly exposition of its educational experiments.

How a Baby is Born. By K. de Schweinitz. With an appreciation by Dr. C. W. Kimmins, late Chief Inspector of the Education Department of the London County Council. Routledge, London. 2s. 6d.

Here is a little book 'for parents, teachers, and young children' which conveys 'what every child should know'—the essential facts about sex life—in simple language. It will help parents and teachers to choose their methods of instruction when faced by the questions which unspoiled children inevitably ask, and it can be put into any child's hands. Frank without crudity, elementary without being trivial, and effectively steering clear of sentimentality, it is an excellent and most readable manual, charmingly illustrated. I unhesitatingly recommend it.

EDEN PAUL

(Translator of Moll's *The Sexual Life of the Child*, Bloch's *The Sexual Life of Our Time*, Kisch's *The Sexual Life of Woman* etc.; author of *Chronos, or the Future of the Family* etc.)

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

SHOULD boys and girls be educated together? Is co-education a better preparation for life? In view of the changed and changing place of women in modern society and the unparalleled freedom claimed by the younger generation, it would seem so. It would seem, too, that the best education for life in the modern adult community is for youth to live in similar, though carefully selected, conditions—'Education pour la vie par la vie', as Decroly and Dewey say.

There are no dogmas in the new education, unless the principle that, since its fundamental purpose is to supply the needs of every child there *can* be no dogmas, is in itself a dogma. Nevertheless, modern civilization is altering so fundamentally and so rapidly that it is essential for us to examine critically common educational practices, many of which are out of date and do not supply the best preparation for modern life. In England, particularly, education is largely dominated by tradition, and is therefore, especially in the case of boys, still influenced by the monasticism of the Middle Ages. In all countries where Roman Catholicism is strong, co-education, especially in boarding schools, is prohibited. In some of the Northern European countries, in America, and in most of the British Dominions, co-education is the common practice in day schools. A clear distinction should be made between mixed schools and true co-education. Mixed schools in England are often favoured purely on economic grounds; as soon as the child population of a district necessitates a second school, the sexes are separated.

Have the advantages of segregation been proved?

Is segregation due to tradition?

Have professional interests anything to do with it, since invariably the head of a mixed school of any size is a man?

Often in these mixed day schools boys and girls are separated as much as possible in classes, in seating arrangements, and in the playground.

In view of the probability of secondary education for all within a few years, it is important to examine the case for co-education in secondary day schools. But, since there is a tendency to take the English public school ^{1,2} as the model of all that is best in English education, it is necessary to examine co-education first in the boarding schools. The real pioneers of co-education in boarding schools are Mr. J. H. Badley, of Bedales (Petersfield, Hampshire), and Rev. Cecil Grant, of St. George's (Harpenden, Hertfordshire). These schools have been established long enough to have found many of the common objections invalid, and also to demonstrate the advantages gained by mixing boys and girls freely both at work and at play, at home and at school. More than half of the schools belonging to the Society of Friends are fully co-educational, and have been for periods varying from three or four to twenty-five years.

During the last few years several more co-educational boarding schools have been founded, including St. Christopher (Letchworth, Hertfordshire) and Frensham Heights (near Farnham, Surrey) and, since all these schools are not only maintaining their numbers but increasing, it would seem that co-education is gaining ground among modern parents. A notable convert to co-education is Rev. the Hon. E. Lyttelton, late Head Master of Eton.

¹The so-called Public School is an endowed boarding school devoted to giving a secondary education to the sons of the English upper class. It asks high fees and receives no money from the state or the Local Authorities, and is completely independent and free of all supervision by the state.

² cf. Cyril Norwood, *English Traditions of Education*.

Common Arguments against Co-education

- (1) Girls become rough, take less care of personal appearance, and generally lose in feminine charm.
- (2) Boys become effeminate.
- (3) In the senior schools friendships are formed based on sex attraction; these tend to mature boys and girls prematurely and also to detract from serious studies.
- (According to Mr. B. A. Howard (see p. 153), romantic friendships are less frequent in co-educational schools, and when they do occur they develop along healthier lines.)
- (4) Co-educational schools, boarding and day, are more difficult to organize and are less economical.
- (5) Necessary differentiation in curriculum for boys and girls is difficult, and girls' special requirements are often neglected.
- (6) Boys and girls develop differently during adolescence and should not be submitted to the same time-table of work.

(This, of course, does not apply to schools in which a considerable amount of individual work has been adopted.)

Common Arguments for Co-education

- (1) It is based on natural laws and is therefore a better preparation for life.
- (2) Men and women educated in co-educational schools understand the other sex better.
- (As Mr. Howard says, men and women have to work in the world together, therefore it is best to prepare for it together. His great point is that just because there is a difference between men and women there must be a technique of accommodating that difference. This technique cannot be acquired if boys and girls are educated separately.)
- (3) Boys have a much better environment, more attention is paid to details, and more care is taken to provide brighter and more homelike surroundings.
- (4) Boys benefit by contacting the feminine viewpoint.
- (5) Girls' viewpoint is broadened and enlarged by contacting masculine viewpoint.
- (6) Undesirable sex habits so often found in segregated boarding schools are minimized.
- (7) Youth inevitably forms friendships based on sex. It is better that boys and girls should do so in the right environment and while still under guidance.

(The main points in Mr. Badley's article (see page 151) are, that co-education is a training *for living by living*; that it makes for enlargement of school activities and outlook; compels recognition that government cannot rest upon physical force; and allows for freedom of thought and fulness of opportunity. In comradeship between boys and girls Mr. Badley sees the only sound basis for a new sex morality.)

The case for co-education in both boarding and day schools would appear to be a strong one. The majority of the objections are the fault of the practice rather than the theory. In countries where co-education is commonly adopted in day schools most of these difficulties do not exist.

The real difficulty in England would therefore appear to be that of prejudice based on tradition. But since, up to the present, the school a boy goes to, whether boarding or day, may seriously affect his subsequent career, parents naturally hesitate to break away from convention. English public schools are built up largely on the monastic traditions, to which has been added games and sport. Largely because the boys attending them come of good sound stock, with good heredity—generations of culture and good home environment—these schools have turned out a pattern type much admired and of much value. Therefore, as has already been stated, there is a tendency for the traditionalist to hold up the public school tradition as the model to be emulated in state secondary schools. On the other hand, there is a growing volume of opinion that all is not well with the Public Schools; that, resting on their traditions, they have not advanced with the times; that the type produced is out of date; and that boys, at any rate from the old-established Public Schools, are finding it difficult to get work in several of the Dominions,¹ where formerly they were in such demand.

Again, if co-education is to become general, another prejudice that would have to be overcome is the prejudice against having even a fully qualified woman as the head of a school. At present there is not by any means the same chance for a woman to obtain such a position in a well-established school as there is for a man. But this whole question of real equality—equal chances, equal pay, suitability and qualifications for the job the only criterion—is one that will sooner or later come up for settlement in all professions to which women are eligible.

We have tried here to state the case for and against co-education; most of the articles state the case for it. We should be glad to receive, for a subsequent issue, articles stating the case against it.

¹ cf. Roger Clarke's *The Future for Public Schools*, in *The Adelphi* magazine for October, November, December 1930 and January 1931.

The Difficulties of Co-education in England

THE RT. HON. THE EARL OF LYTTON, P.C., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.

CO-EDUCATION, like all pioneer movements that challenge long-established custom and tradition, is a highly controversial subject. At present it is denied the conditions in which alone it can be fairly tested. Such co-educational boarding schools as exist in this country are so largely exceptional institutions that they cannot fairly be compared with the schools which are in all respects normal and conventional. A considered judgment of the rival advantages and disadvantages of the two systems could only be formed after seeing each in operation as a normal practice.

I am a firm believer in the general principle that boys and girls should be educated together as far as possible. Family life is the natural environment for the child till adolescence. School life is an inevitable departure from the natural, but this departure should be made as little as possible. The segregation of boys and girls in separate boarding schools produces conditions which make the widest possible divergence from those of the family. The size of the whole community, the existence of large numbers of approximately the same age, and finally the presence of only one sex, produce an environment which is wholly unnatural and artificial. If children must be boarded together in order to be taught, the schools should be kept as small as possible and should include children of different ages and both sexes.

But however sound the principle of co-education may be in theory, its application presents many difficulties. Schools are of two kinds—day schools and boarding schools. The advantage of the day school is that it preserves as much as possible of the home influence during the school years. Though the child attends classes and plays games with other children during the day, the evenings are still spent at home. The events of each day can be talked over with the parents; teachers, schoolmates, work and play can be discussed. The child does not leave the family circle altogether, parental influence is not completely interrupted. The advantage of the boarding school is that it cultivates the team spirit and teaches community loyalty. In

such schools the actual teaching in classrooms is but a small part of the education which the school provides. Throughout the day in all his activities a boy's character is being moulded more by his companions than by his masters. If there is one quality which more than any other distinguishes the Englishman among men of other races it is his community discipline, his readiness both to command and to obey, his sense of what he owes to the community in which he lives; and this quality is especially conspicuous among the class that is educated in youth in boarding schools.

In the educational system of this country the children of the poorer classes who attend the State schools receive too little of this community training, and the children of the wealthier classes who attend privately endowed boarding schools are withdrawn too soon from the influence of their homes. An ideal system would be one in which all children were educated in day schools till the age of 13 or 14 and afterwards in boarding schools till the age of 18, with universities for the few who are able and willing to pursue their higher studies up to the age of 21. If it were possible to find two countries, in one of which the children of all classes and both sexes attended such schools, and in the other of which the children were segregated according to class and sex, the principle of co-education could be fairly tested, and I have little doubt that the advantage would lie with fusion rather than with segregation.

Such a comparison is, however, impossible. In practice we have for the children of one class a system of day schools attended by boys and girls between the ages of 5 and 14 with no school education beyond the latter age, and for another class a system of boarding schools for children from 9 to 19 in which sex segregation is the normal feature. In the few good State elementary schools where boys and girls work and play together no one, I think, would deny that the system is natural and works well. Few, if any, would contend that it would be better for the boys to attend one school and the girls another. But then such children leave school

altogether at the age when the problem of mixing or separating the sexes becomes debatable, and there is no general system of mixed boarding schools to compare with the general system of separate schools for boys and girls of the wealthier classes. Moreover, among the class that send their children to boarding schools a different curriculum is generally thought desirable for boys and girls. Many do not approve of schools for girls at all, and prefer to educate their daughters at home with a governess.

Some boarding schools, it is true, exist in which the co-education system is adopted, but such schools are exceptional and are apt to produce exceptional children. To compare the exception with the rule, the unconventional with the conventional, is unsatisfactory, because in such a case our judgment is affected by whether we prefer the normal or the unconventional. What is needed is an opportunity of comparing the children who have been educated in a country where co-education schools are the normal practice with the children of another country where separate schools for each sex prevail.

In the absence of such opportunity for a just comparison, the principle of co-education will remain a debatable issue in which the disputants are likely to be prejudiced by the experience of particular individuals rather than of a general type. Opponents of the principle will quote cases of some boy or girl who has suffered in life or character from being at a co-education school. The evidence of such cases cannot be regarded as conclusive, for the individual may have had an exceptional temperament, and in any case the school must necessarily have been an exceptional school. There is not as yet a sufficient number of such schools for co-education

to be regarded as a normal experience. On the other hand individual cases of damage done by the schools of one sex only can equally be found. But such misfits are recognized as exceptional, and it would be unreasonable to base upon them a condemnation of the Public School system in general.

Those who believe in the principle of co-education must pursue their pioneer efforts confidently, in the hope that in time the system they advocate may become the normal instead of the exceptional. They will meet with much criticism, for it is the fate of pioneers to be criticized by those who champion the established order. But because of the experimental nature of the co-education schools which exist, many who believe in the soundness of the principle may hesitate to put it into practice under existing conditions. The parent who chooses an unconventional school for his child incurs a larger measure of responsibility because a larger element of risk is involved in the choice. We may prefer day schools for young children but they are not easily available, and we are forced to send our children away from home to preparatory boarding schools because no suitable day school is to be found near the district in which we live. Many again who believe in the principle of co-education may prefer to send their children to schools of a different type which have great traditions and have attracted the best educational brains in the country, rather than select one of the pioneer institutions where the co-educational principle is adopted but which have still their reputations to make. Fortunately, however, there is a sufficient number of parents with sufficient faith and courage to support those pioneer schools and in a few years' time equally good schools of both types may become available.

Co-education as Training for Living by Living*

J. H. BADLEY, M.A.

Headmaster of Bedales School, Petersfield, Hampshire; author of 'Bedales: A Pioneer School'; 'Co-education and its Part in a complete Education', etc.

I SHALL here confine myself to the bearing of co-education upon three important aspects of school, its activities, its government, and its freedom, considered as means of training many-sided human beings for a many-sided life. In the first respect it certainly makes for an enlargement of school activities and interests. In arts and crafts, for instance, (and few will question the educational value of these), why is a boy to be altogether debarred from weaving or cooking, or a girl from the use of carpenters' tools? And in singing and dancing and acting both range and interest are greatly increased where both take part. Even in the most orthodox school subjects, there is a widening of outlook in the different lines of approach and directions of interest, especially if we remember that a co-educational school means a mixed staff. There is little need to emphasize a still greater value in this for the teachers themselves, for each sex recognizes as applying to the other (however blind to it in its own case) the narrowness of outlook in a single-sex community.

So, too, with self-government. Here the gains of co-education are evident even at the time, though still more in the future for which it is a training. The chief one is that it compels recognition that government cannot rest merely upon

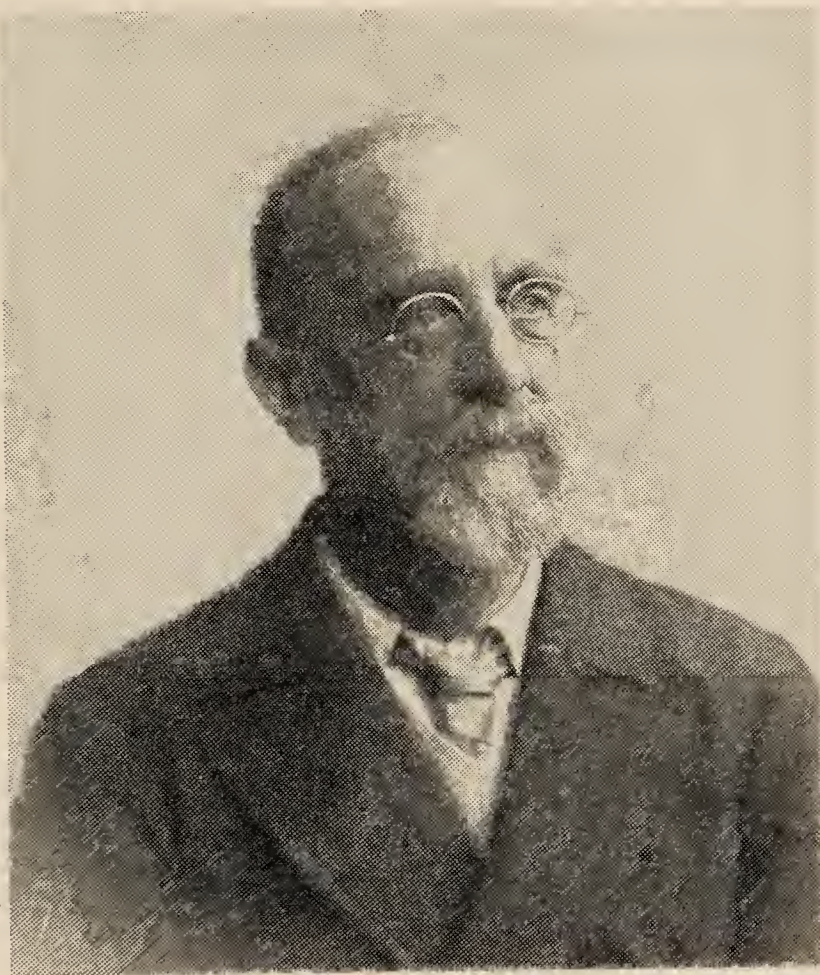
*Part of a paper read to the Cambridge Education Society.

physical force, and this must be replaced by an admitted authority resting upon other qualities as well and backed by public opinion. Boys' schools are now very different from what they once were; but their tradition is still one that tends to produce—together with needless suffer-

ing of the sensitive—the conviction that power is privilege, and that authority rests on force. In a co-educational school the fact that rules and their enforcing must apply to boy and girl, and must be administered by both, makes another point of view inevitable. Where there is daily experience of joint discussion and common action in solving the problems of government in such a school, boy and girl are getting a training for dealing with later problems, domestic and political, social and international, in

which similar factor are involved.

It is in the third aspect of school life, that of freedom of growth and fulness of opportunity, that co-education seems to me to bring its greatest possibilities of gain—as well, of course, as its greatest possibilities of failure. Education—in its widest sense of learning by experience—is a matter of contacts: contacts with things, contacts with ideas, contacts with people. I have already pointed out that co-education makes for a wider range of school activities and interests, both inside the classroom and out—more contacts with things, that is, and with ideas. In widening the range of



Mr. J. H. Badley

personal contacts it does still more. The finest teaching is the influence of the thought and feeling of the teacher on the feeling and thought of the learner, the influence of personality on personality. To confine this influence to the same sex is semi-starvation. If we think how much of a boy's needs are supplied by his mother, and of a girl's by her father, we shall see the loss to each on entering the atmosphere of a convent. And is not this true of companionship also? Sex with its manifold enrichment of life and its needs, unconscious even more than conscious, does not first become active at adolescence; it is—or should be—a gradual growth, and (with our northern races at least) its physical claims come later to urgency if its emotional claims can find their satisfaction in companionship and their outlet in creative effort. Youth, with its alternations of untested assurance and 'blank misgivings of a creature moving about in worlds not realized', is not an easy time at best; and the traditional treatment of it—handed down from primitive man with his initiation-rites—by segregation of the sexes at the time of their emotional development, so far from making it easier, has only intensified the strain. Repressions, we now know, are dangerous things, and more emotional outlet, with more companionship, more community of interests and more frankness, may be wiser.

In a recent encyclical letter the Pope declared against co-education as 'false and harmful', tending to encourage 'a levelling promiscuity' in place of 'the legitimate association of the sexes'; and he goes on to utter warnings about gymnastic exercises for girls as 'greatly impairing their Christian modesty by any kind of exhibition in public' and also to censure any 'foolhardy initiation and precautionary (sex) instruction for all'. With no less religious fervour, the Soviet of Riga (if we may believe the Press) has recently passed a decree allowing temporary marriages between those still at school, and pledging itself to provide for their offspring.

For my own part I neither believe that a mediaeval or even a Victorian attitude towards sex is now either desirable or possible, nor yet that promiscuity and incontinence, as Pope and Soviet believe, are the only alternative. Both seem to me to be equally subversive of the sanity of thought and feeling that it should be the aim of education to produce. Such sanity, I believe, is more likely to be the outcome, in the first place, of frank satisfaction of children's natural desire for knowledge about sex as about any other side of life, and in the second, of companionship free alike from the stimulation of unwholesome conditions and from unnecessary restrictions and segregation which, even if they do not bring about perversions and dangerous complexes, lead sooner or later to violent reactions. Co-education is of value just because it offers, as I believe, a means of promoting a healthier habit of feeling and thought—a growth all the healthier for being largely unconscious—as the result of daily intercourse between the sexes under conditions of equality and of practical comradeship. In such comradeship I see the only sound basis for a new sex-morality to take the place of the old that is now so out of touch with our assumptions and our needs. In politics, in economics, in marriage and all social relations, the new life can no longer be confined in old forms. The new ones have yet to be found; and for the first time in history this can be done not, as always before, by a dominant sex in its own interests, but by both together for their common welfare and the interests of the race. For this common task some common ground of thought and feeling is needed, the habit of mind and mutual understanding that grows from life together and the pursuit of common aims. Can we get this common ground except by an upbringing that makes of boy and girl not merely occasional playmates meeting only for amusement, but fellow-workers from the first, aware of common interests and common needs?

Co-education in State Secondary Schools

B. A. HOWARD

Head Master of Addey and Stanhope School for Boys and Girls, New Cross, London ; Chief Matriculation Examiner to the University of London ; author of ' The Mixed School '

THOSE who believe in co-education in the State secondary schools have the same general grounds for their belief as supporters of co-education in other types of schools. They believe, first, in sex equality ; that is, in equality of status, though not necessarily in equality of achievement. They believe that with the growth of the woman's movement in the last fifty years the centre of gravity of the modern world is changing ; that as men and women have to work in the world together they are best prepared for it together ; that if they are not, their work later is not likely to be carried on as smoothly or successfully as it should be. They believe that there are well-marked defects in any completely segregated community, whether of men or of women, of boys or of girls ; and though they recognize that secondary schools deal with boys and girls at a specially difficult age, they see in that fact not so much a difficulty as a special opportunity. They do not want to drive the impulses of the adolescent boy or girl underground because they realize, far more than was realized a generation ago, the undesirable results which follow from repression. They think that it is better that a boy should have his first experience of girls, and a girl her first experience of boys, at a time when they are subject to the guidance which a good school can provide. They think, in short, that as the world is changing, the schools will have to change too. It may be possible to construct one half of a Ford car in one factory, the other half in another, wheel them together at the last minute and so make the perfect automobile. But you cannot educate all your boys in one school, all your girls in another, throw them together at the last minute and expect them to make a perfect world.

Those who have once grasped the spirit of a mixed school, and felt any kind of sympathy with its tolerance and its broad ideals, feel that

it has a width of outlook which no other type of school can offer. It is *complete*.

It is not only co-educationists who feel that the relations between men and women in later life fall sadly short of what they might be. It is a general complaint. But the malady is diagnosed differently. The man blames the woman and the woman blames the man. Dr. M. D. Brock has recently been telling us her experience on the Prime Minister's Committee on Classics. She found great difficulty, she says, in getting the male members of the Committee to see the point of view of girls. They would come to some conclusion about boys, having considered them alone, and would then replace the word ' boys ' by ' pupils '. That at least is what Dr. Brock says, and I will take her word about what happened at that committee (she was there and I was not) if she will take my word about what happens in mixed schools (I teach in one and she does not). But I believe her all the more readily because I have had a similar experience myself on many a committee and in many a meeting. Sometimes the men do not want to come to terms with the women ; more often, they would like to do so, but they are quite ignorant of what the women's point of view is. They simply do not understand. It is inevitable, while boys' education and girls' education are conducted in watertight compartments. Just because there is a difference of point of view between men and women, so there must be a technique of accommodating that difference ; and if boys and girls are to be educated in entire isolation from each other, it is not reasonable to suppose that they will ever acquire that technique.

Co-educationists do not believe that boys and girls are mere copies of one another. They not only admit differences, they value them. They think that the different points of view are complementary rather than antagonistic, and that in the hands of a skilful teacher they help to

make a lesson more stimulating and instructive.

The latest evidence from doctors, psychologists and teachers who have studied both boys and girls, is that there is a definite difference on the physical plane; which is the reason why the secondary schools invariably separate boys and girls for gymnastics and games. The difference on the intellectual plane, however, is practically negligible (the difference between the good girl and the bad girl is far greater than the difference between the average boy and the average girl) and temperamentally the sexes are so varied that to construct a norm at all is of little use. In practice it is not sex differences which trouble the teacher in a mixed school; it is only the outside inquirer who is curious about them. The teacher is concerned with differences of another type; with the distinction, for instance, between the hard worker and the lazy; between those who are in Va and those who are in Vc; between those with an arts' bias and those with a science bias; between those who 'see for themselves, those who see when they are shown, and those who neither see for themselves nor see when they are shown.' The sex division is only one of many different divisions in a mixed school, and, except for games, not even the most important one.

The state secondary schools, while generally subscribing to the co-educational doctrine, have had, in the past, certain difficulties of their own to overcome. They had to be carried on; they had to meet the instant's need. They could not venture to get too far in advance of public opinion. And the recruitment of their staff was in many cases too haphazard. A real effort should be made to appoint only those men and women to the staffs of mixed schools who really understand and believe in the underlying principles involved. Some schools have paid no attention to this. Some authorities, particularly in elementary schools, transfer teachers from one school to another without making any attempt to consider whether they are by temperament suited for that particular type of work. If such schools get good teachers—they often do—they are luckier than they deserve to be.

Secondary schools of the last generation which admitted both boys and girls for reasons of necessity naturally tried to keep the sexes as

far apart as possible. The boys and girls sat on opposite sides of the class-rooms, whenever circumstances permitted were taught in separate forms, and were allowed no freedom of association whatever. This type of school, known technically as a 'dual' school, still exists. It stands almost universally condemned. Those who believe in co-education consider it ludicrous; those who do not believe in co-education would rather see it replaced by two entirely separate schools.

This dual type of organization has gradually given place to something better; and for many reasons. First, it was seen to be wasteful; secondly, it was found that when in practice boys and girls became mixed no harm resulted; thirdly, there was a growing change creeping over public opinion which was created by the women's movement and which was naturally reflected within the walls of the school. The case for real co-education began to be discussed and appreciated; and hence there came a gradual change, in the large majority of schools, from a dual organization to one which was genuinely mixed.

There was, of course, some exaggeration. There is often exaggeration in the first attempts to put new ideas into practice. Some people took the new doctrine to mean that boys and girls should be always and everywhere forced together. This kind of fallacy is easily fallen into by persons who appreciate the ideals of co-education but who have little practical experience. The prevailing practice in the best modern type of mixed school avoids both extremes. Such schools are anxious to secure as much freedom for the individual as is humanly possible; but realize that they cannot do that without providing opportunities both for association of the sexes and, if need be, for their segregation. Their internal organization therefore provides for (a) a limited number of subjects which the sexes study separately, such as woodwork, needlework, cookery, gymnastics, domestic science, metalwork; (b) a much larger number of compulsory subjects, comprising the bulk of the curriculum, which the sexes study together (history, geography, mathematics, French, &c.); and (c) various optional subjects in which the dividing line will be that of aptitude rather than of sex, and so which may in

practice give rise either to segregation or association. Similarly, in out-of-school activities, such schools arrange that boys and girls who wish to be separated have certain opportunities for being so, though normally they will be members of the same school societies and enjoy precisely the same corporate life. The practice followed, therefore, is neither to force together nor to separate, but to allow the situation to work itself out as it pleases. For example, if boys and girls wish to sit together in school, they do so; if they wish to separate themselves, they will separate.

The reader may ask what in fact happens. The Head Mistresses' Association will be only too ready to tell him; but unfortunately, its members will not all tell him the same thing. One of them, for instance, has recently been quoting the statement of an (anonymous) mother to an (unnamed) head mistress about an (unknown) mixed school, which her daughter does not attend, that 'every girl there has her boy'; others are emphatic that boys and girls prefer to be separated. When such authorities upon the subject differ, who shall venture to judge between them? I would only point out respectfully that they really cannot have it both ways.

It might, however, be useful if I described quite briefly just what I myself have observed. What really happens? Sometimes there is separation; sometimes there is association; most of the time there is no special desire for one or the other, so that, the matter being left to chance, association is more likely to prevail than segregation. Is there much sex-consciousness? It is almost non-existent. Does either sex show any distrust or suspicion of the other? Now and then it does. Schools are not homes for plaster saints. They are very human places, and boys and girls have just as many faults as their elders. But to describe the usual attitude as a suspicious one would be a sheer travesty of the facts. There is sometimes, then, a little suspicion, and occasionally, though very occasionally, clashes of wills; but there is on the other hand much real freedom, cheerfulness, good humour, co-operation, resulting in an attitude and atmosphere which is an ideal en-

vironment for adolescent life. And my own experience is that, whenever co-education is sincerely and willingly tried by a staff in sympathy with it, they find that the friendliness and the good relations outweigh beyond all computation the suspicion and the dislike.

I do not want, of course, to deny that bad mixed schools exist. Such schools I am not interested to defend. Bad girls' schools exist. Bad boys' schools exist. All three are thoroughly unpleasant types. I should be sorry to have to choose between them.

Mixed secondary schools have come in for a good deal of criticism lately from the Head Mistresses' Association. I do not propose to retaliate by criticising girls' schools, for it seems to me a pity that one type of school should spend its energies in attacking another type. Let the head mistresses tell the public how good girls' schools are, a subject upon which they are qualified to speak; and let the heads of mixed schools and their senior mistresses emphasize the merits of mixed schools, a topic on which they have first-hand experience. We shall each prefer our own type of organization, but we need not depreciate other types, whose resemblances to ours are greater than their differences; rather we should seek to work in co-operation with them whenever and wherever we can. And let us remember that in all types of school, important though organization may be, there is something of much greater importance—the spirit in which we as teachers set about our work. If you have a teacher who teaches merely to get his salary, who thinks that it is a poor game really, who takes the view of the Kipling schoolmaster that 'ours is a dwarfish life, a belittling life, my brethren', then the utmost you can expect from him is a certain level of mere technical efficiency. He will fail in those things which really matter whether you put him in a separated school or a mixed one. And if on the other hand you have a teacher who is in love with his job, with generous sympathies and ideals, who takes what has been finely called 'a large and loving view of life', then, in whatever kind of school he may be teaching, he will make a success of his work; for he will have within him that Spirit which is Life.



Members of the Guilds at Work on Crafts

*[Beaver Country Day School,
Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts]*



At Work in the Library

[Friends School, Sidcot, Somerset]

The Advantages of Co-education—I

CLAIRE DESCHAMPS

Head Girl of Frensham Heights School, 1927-28

AFTER having left school for two years and been up at Cambridge for a year and a half, I am firmly convinced that co-education is the most sane, intelligent and happy (if sometimes dangerous) form of education for the majority of girls. I do not believe that it is equally ideal for boys; for although it is as good for them as it is for girls, and in many cases they may profit from it even more, the incidental disadvantages of co-education and its resulting handicaps fall more heavily upon them. A co-educational school must necessarily be of a limited size, for it is essential that every child should be personally known to the head of the school, and, while this is distinctly better for the girls, who are apt to lose all individuality in a large community, it is rather hard on the boys. They suffer much more than the girls from the lack of sufficient competition in all branches of school activities, and particularly in games. In after life the disadvantage of not having been to a well-known Public School may in certain cases be extremely serious to a boy, whereas it hardly exists for a girl.

I am unreservedly glad and thankful that I was sent to a co-educational school. Mostly, perhaps, because I was extremely happy at school. Few of those of my contemporaries at Newnham whom I know fairly well, who were educated at orthodox girls' schools, seem to look back on their years at school as anything but a period of dullness, sometimes aggravated by overwork and compulsory games. They were either indifferent and bored, or rebellious and unhappy. None of them seem to have actively enjoyed every second of their school days as we all did at Frensham Heights. The cheerfulness which pervaded the school was not due merely to the particularly enlightened way in which the school was run, to the self-government which gave us all an interest in the discipline of it, to the system of individual study which made work more interesting and exciting than, if not as thorough as, it would otherwise have been

or even to the superb surroundings in which the school itself was placed—though all this undoubtedly contributed to the general happiness. It was in the main due to the broadening influence of co-education itself, to the added zest and enthusiasm which the presence of both sexes automatically brought to the school, and to the fact that everything boys and girls do together is much more natural, lively, and enjoyable than what they do separately.

Perhaps the greatest benefits a girl derives from co-education are, a sane attitude towards the other sex, and the ability to meet men more naturally, to work with them more easily, to understand their interests, and to some extent their attitude towards life. This sense of balance and greater understanding is, I think, of the greatest help to a girl who goes up to a university like Cambridge, where the men outnumber the girls by more than twelve to one, and the relations between the sexes are perforce extremely artificial.

A number of the girls who have been educated at orthodox girls' schools are unable to cope with the freedom which is suddenly allowed them in their relations with men. They have not been accustomed to it, nothing in their segregated education has prepared them for it, so it is only natural that they should abuse the freedom which is given them—or, as occasionally happens, completely fail to make use of the opportunities provided for them, and continue to live in the women's colleges the semi-cloistered life which they lived at school. It must be said in all fairness that this does not apply to the majority of girls who have been educated in girls' schools, but to a minority large enough to show that from that point of view, at least, many of them would have benefited greatly from co-education.

I do not think there are any disadvantages in having been co-educated to a girl who goes up to a university; indeed, co-education is in many ways more necessary in this case.

The Advantages of Co-education—II

PHILIP A. SMITHELLS

Head Boy of Bedales, Petersfield, Hampshire, 1928-29; now at Clare College, Cambridge

I AM strongly in favour of co-education organized as it is at Bedales. If co-education is to be of value, it must be complete. Boys and girls must co-operate in the fixed routine occupations of the day, and also during leisure time. The prefectorial system is one of the most profitable grounds on which the sexes can work together. Out-of-door games, of course, should be separate, but such other occupations as forestry, woodcraft, farming, gardening, expeditions into the neighbouring country, will help to make co-education natural and complete. If these conditions can be obtained, the school becomes a miniature world which conforms to and is a preparation for the adult world.

A co-educational school must combine the best points of the large family with those of the boys' school and the girls' school. It must not be of unwieldy dimensions; it must bring together all ages and types; discipline, in its true sense of discipleship, must be maintained and organized by public opinion and some prefectorial system. Public opinion is doubly critical in a mixed community and plays a very important role. Prefects must act in the capacity of elder brothers and sisters.

One of the commonest criticisms of co-education is that it is all right for girls but not for boys. To me this idea seems very extraordinary. The only reason I have been able to find for it is, that a boy must be soft and unmanly because he has been brought up with girls; that the presence of girls must have a feminizing influence, and that the boy will not get the rough treatment he would in a boys' school. This view I consider quite fallacious. Co-education tends to emphasize the masculinity in a boy by throwing it in contrast with the femininity of the girls. Adolescent boys and girls educated together can discover what are the real differences between the sexes and can discard the artificial ones set up by segregation. The prefectorial system is of the utmost importance in this. It is found that the efficiency of a prefect is quite independent of sex. The utmost value can be

obtained from the mutual working of boys and girls as prefects where they have to deal with all the disciplinary problems of the school. I feel very strongly that to get real benefit from co-education one must have some experience of being a prefect; to leave before this stage I consider a tragedy. Equally I feel that co-education should start at least before adolescence. How far it should extend I cannot tell, but I know I am with many in saying that the segregation at Cambridge is felt to be far from satisfactory.

Another common criticism of co-education is that it makes it harder for a person to enter the outside adult world. If this were the case, then co-education would be a failure. In ordinary life, the co-educated person settles down as soon as any other, and even at the older universities (which is about as trying a test as could be devised, being communities fed chiefly from segregated sources and themselves nearly segregated); even in these conditions the co-educated man is at no disadvantage. I feel, and I know public school men who agree, that in many ways he is at an advantage. To exemplify this it is not invidious to say that from my own school we have had a President of the Cambridge boat, a president of the A.D.C., two soccer blues, athletics blues, and the British Ski Champion for three years running. During the war 95 per cent of the old boys served in the Army and of those, 60—well over 20 per cent—gave their lives. These examples also sufficiently answer the non-masculinity criticism.

Co-education has also been criticized on the grounds that it does not give good work results. To this I reply that any deficiency in the results of exams. taken while at my own school is not due to co-education, but to absence of cramming and encouragement of handicrafts and music.

I feel very strongly that co-education is the most natural form of education and handled properly, approaches the ideal preparation for life, always with the proviso that it must be as complete as possible both in duration and in organization.

Focal Points—II

Co-education in Practice

(As many teachers who would like to introduce newer ways of teaching into their work cannot go to other schools practising them to judge for themselves the merits or demerits of these ways, it was thought that a short series of articles on what might be termed Focal Points of new education would be helpful. Questionnaires are being prepared and sent to a number of schools of various types known to be following different specific new methods. This article is based on answers to the second questionnaire)

I.—IN PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

TO the small minority engaged in co-education to-day this article may seem superfluous, but to the uninitiated co-education is still a theory over which to harangue rather than an actual working proposition. With the intention of publishing the views of those who have experimented in co-education or have experienced it, a *questionnaire* was directed to certain pioneer schools. Despite the inevitable ill-favour with which *questionnaires* are received at the end of a busy term, a considerable amount of data was returned, and the main results of the inquiry are embodied here.

The paramount impression gained from the material thus assembled is the confidence, the conviction, of those who have proved for themselves that co-education is the right method of preparing the young for adult life. The doubts which many have indulged in, and which will be uppermost in the minds of certain of our readers, evidently appear quite absurd from their vantage ground. 'One does get so tired', writes the headmaster of a thorough-going co-educational school, 'of demolishing bogies which are only the fictions of the imaginations of people who have never had any contact with co-education'. Bogies are elusive, and not easily disposed of, but one cannot overlook the fact that every answer received in response to our *questionnaire* reiterates a great faith in the undeniable merit of this system.

Let it be quite understood from the outset that by co-education in these schools is not meant merely an arrangement of convenience by which boys and girls work under the same roof, but where they are segregated as far as possible in recreation and in most activities. This is the regime of the 'mixed' State school, but it is not co-education. By co-education we understand a system in which boys and girls are educated together in the widest sense of the word.

Considering closely the material at our disposal it is established, first of all, that the benefits of co-education are most fully realized in the boarding school. Here the boys and girls co-operate not only in work, and perhaps in physical games, but also in the problems of their government. There are, admittedly, dissentient voices, but the large majority of contributors prefer the boarding school, where the environment resembles a large family, and yet where the child is not distracted by a variety of external interests. In an age of great distraction this temporary abstraction is no mean factor. In addition, the boarding school has the aspect of a small world, where the child can now be trained along lines of civic and

social responsibility. The school is become, in fact, society in miniature. A comprehensive education is probably no longer compatible with a dual life in school and home.

The purpose of this discussion is to travel along essentially practical lines. As regards the proportion of boys to girls, one might naturally suppose that they should be equal, but it appears from most of the replies to this question that the heads of such schools advocate a slightly greater proportion of boys in most cases, but never the reverse. If the desirability of co-education is granted in general principle, the question arises whether boys and girls can work together at exactly the same subjects, or whether it is better to arrange alternative curricula and parallel classes in certain subjects? It appears in practice that boys and girls work well together in all subjects. The presence of the boys, thinks one head master, saves the girls from effects of over-conscientiousness and makes them less slaves to their work. They tend to segregate themselves for domestic training and strenuous manual work. But even in these cases there is no very rigid line of demarcation. At the Holt School, Liverpool, arrangements have been made for the boys to do cookery for one term and similarly for the girls to do light woodwork. Girls often take carpentry from choice at the Friends' School, Saffron Walden, though for convenience they do it at a different time from the boys. On the other hand it is sometimes found in this school that the girls prefer to take domestic science instead of carpentry. It seems best to make no compulsory ruling in this matter, but to leave it to the children to develop their natural tendencies. Where hygiene is taught as a class subject it may be thought well to have separate divisions, and in one case (the Friends' School, Sidcot) Scripture, too, is taken separately. But apart from these few exceptions, it seems they can share the school programme successfully. Naturally, after matriculation, when specialization begins, it may be found that one sex tends to one side more than to another; but this is no handicap to a system of co-education.

In physical training and team games we shall expect to find that there is some segregation. But in the junior co-educational schools such as Halstead Place, Kent, while in the winter the boys play football and the girls netball, in the summer term they prefer to play cricket together. Even in the senior schools where games and gymnastics are mostly separate they may play each other at tennis, hockey and fives, with great success, and even at cricket with consider-

able fun. It is agreed that the two sexes should not compete against one another, but the organization of house teams composed of boys and girls, makes for friendly co-operation in certain games, athletics and swimming.

But what, we may ask, is the reaction of these children upon one another? We learn from careful observation that this is not detrimental to either the boy or the girl. It is the opinion of the Headmaster of Bedales that up till the age of fourteen the girls supply an intellectual stimulus to the boys, and that this is wholly beneficial.

Most of our authorities concur in the opinion that whatever emotional stimulus there may be is not only harmless but indeed is for the good of the participants. 'I cannot, in the four years I have been here, trace any evil consequence of such stimulation', writes the Headmaster of Dartington Hall, and he continues, 'there has been a certain amount of transient individual unhappiness due to it, but this has in every case led to growth and not to warping'. It is probable that growing up together in this healthy fashion, the children have something of the indifference to one another that is found within the family. There is at school, just as at home, a period of definite estrangement between boys and girls of certain ages. Boys it seems, between the ages of eleven and thirteen, even in co-educational schools, have little use for girls. In girls the period of estrangement comes naturally rather later, and between twelve and fourteen they tend to play among themselves and ignore the boys. This, however, is no argument against co-education, especially if, as is possible, co-education shortens the period of estrangement and makes the transition easier. 'We think it important', writes the Headmaster of King Alfred School, 'that they should be together during the period of "estrangement", else they never get over it, and the thirteen-fifteen-year-old mentality is liable to become fixed for life'. Another eminent headmaster asserts that we must allow for a certain separation of interests and must not force companionship; but that it would be a great mistake to make the separation complete. Companionships should be encouraged rather than otherwise, so as to minimize the estrangement at the time and the reaction afterwards.

As for this reaction, the fact of boy and girl friendships is often quite foolishly suggested as an argument against co-education, as though it were harmful in itself. On the contrary, it is the unanimous opinion of these principals of co-educational schools that such friendships are quite the reverse of harmful. That they might become dangerous is not denied, but there is generally a healthy attitude towards this sort of thing, and both boys and girls are usually very susceptible to the general opinion of their fellows on their conduct. Exclusive friendships are unhelpful to the tone and moral of the school as a whole and though not necessarily harmful to the participants, they should, and can be avoided.

There seems no room for doubt, from the evidence, that co-education prevents unhealthy curiosity and premature sexual excitement, or at least provides an environment in which these difficulties are more easily

dealt with. The sex development is less sudden and more normal so that there is less likelihood of difficulty in the matter.

It has been objected, perhaps naturally, that boys educated with girls might tend to become effeminate and the girls be coarsened. While it is admitted that possibly between the ages of ten and twelve the girls become somewhat boyish, that soon passes, and the suggestion that the boys are less manly is entirely repudiated by the athletic achievements of certain co-educational schools. In this connection we are able to publish the current Rugby football record of St. George's School, Harpenden, and it will be seen to be a record of singular merit, especially when the size of the school is borne in mind. The number of boys over eleven years of age at St. George's is seventy-eight, only forty-five of whom are over fifteen years of age. Yet in a series of twelve matches this season they have won six, drawn three, and lost three. In the detailed list given below¹ the number of boys in the opposing schools is given in brackets.

<i>Matches won against</i>		<i>Scores</i>	
Queen Elizabeth's School, Barnet			
(300)	45 points to	3
Perse School, Cambridge (350)	..	35	5
Dunstable Grammar School (300?)	..	60	3
Caterham, Kent (300)	..	20	3
Leighton Park, Reading (130 boarders)	27	..	6
Watford Grammar School (650)	..	19	0
<i>Matches drawn</i>			
St. Albans School (425)	..	3	3
Sutton Valance School, Kent (200)	..	9	9
Eltham College, Kent (200?)	..	0	0
<i>Matches lost</i>			
St. Edmund's College, Ware (100 boarders)	..	0	6
Royal Masonic School, Bushey (600)	8	..	10
Wadham College, Oxford (1st XV)	..	9	19

Nor is this a freak of fortune in the Rugby football world alone. The present cricket captain has not only played three seasons at Lord's for the public schools, but last summer as a Young Amateur playing against the Young Professionals, he made 37 and took four wickets for 25 runs. In athletic sports St. George's stand high up among the 120 schools whose records are published. Four times in the last five years the mile has been won in under 5 minutes and this year the first three were within that time. St. George's is a comparatively young school, but it can boast an International at Rugby football, and another old boy has gained his Blue for the 100 yards, at Cambridge. It does not seem that the boys of this co-educational school are lacking in prowess. In concluding on this particular aspect of co-education, perhaps we cannot do better than quote a passage from *The Case for Co-education*, an article published in 1921 by The Incorporated Association of Head Masters. It reads as follows: 'It was thought that where boys and girls were brought up together the result might be that the boys would be less manly in

¹For these results and records we are indebted to Mr. Tyson of St. George's School staff.

tone. But the record of enlistments, services, and sacrifices show that this was not so. We hold that the corresponding conjecture that girls would become ill-mannered and hoydenish is just as inaccurate. To educate boys and girls together is not to produce a slurring of the type, but to bring contrast and comparison into proper relief. Girls do not respect "namby-pamby" boys, nor do boys like hoydens. We are quite sincere when we say that mutual consideration for each other is more likely to be learned by association than by separation.' There is strong reason to believe that boys and girls suffer no detrimental modification of their natural qualities as boy and girl, through co-education, and on the other hand, there is no danger of the girl becoming a boy-substitute, as may in fact happen in a girls' school, or of a boy becoming a girl-substitute as has been known in boys' schools.

It appears on inquiry that the fact of having been co-educated is no longer a barrier in academic or professional circles, neither does co-education appear to form a barrier to the natural development of sex attraction. It is evident from figures supplied by two of the most famous Friends' schools, that the old boys and old girls intermarry to a considerable extent, and it suggests that for them co-education has been no detriment.

That co-education means grave responsibility for the educator no one would deny, and one grave difficulty for the principal of such a school lies in the selection of the right staff. It is essential that the staff believe in co-education. Naturally it is easier to find the women, because the choice is greater. Men, it seems, do not readily enter the teaching profession even now, and one headmaster writes: 'It is difficult to find exactly the right men. A terribly high proportion of freaks and impossibles apply for the men's posts.' The married teacher is, of course, a great asset in the co-educational school, but the married woman teacher is difficult to obtain. Both men and women, when married, have strong counter interests and so it is essential to have a number of keen unmarried teachers who will devote themselves entirely to the school.

In conclusion, any lingering doubts as to the feasibility of co-education might well be dispersed by certain unique evidence on the subject, namely, the opinions of the children themselves. Certain children, aged twelve to fourteen, discussed with their headmaster some of the points we have already considered, and pronounced their judgment in favour of co-education. Moreover, they prefer to be in a boarding school since they get to know each other and the staff better through the activities out of school hours. They are of the opinion that there should be rather more boys than girls and they suggested the ratio of 55 : 45. It is noticeable that the girls were quite agreed on this point. Both boys and girls were agreed that each sex was somewhat stimulated emotionally by the presence of the other, but they felt sure that this was quite a good thing and in no way harmful. They admitted too, a definite estrangement between the ages of ten and twelve, but suspected that hostility between the sexes would be the

greater where they did not work or play together. In fact, they had no doubt that co-education was the best way. Considering the possible harm arising from boy and girl friendships they agreed that in excess this would distract from work, but still they argued that the tone of their co-educational school was better than the tone in separate schools of which they had experience formerly. Giving their opinions quite frankly, they agreed that co-education diminished an unhealthy curiosity, and maintained that it was essential to come under the influence of co-education early. They felt that more was to be feared in close friendships between boy and boy, and girl and girl, than between boy and girl. They denied that co-education made for effeminate boys or tom-boy girls, though one boy suspected that this might be a matter of class, and that with children of no cultural background, co-education might tend to coarsen the girls. The children dealt fairly by the whole business and saw clearly that it is difficult to separate out the results of co-education as distinguished from the other qualities of the school. The healthy atmosphere and spontaneity was due not to co-education alone, perhaps, but the testimony of these children is not without a certain value.

II—IN ENGLISH STATE SCHOOLS

Inquiring into the extent to which co-education has penetrated the state schools, we find that it is practically non-existent. For whilst schools are organized for the combined instruction of boys and girls, for economic considerations, the principle of co-education, demanding as it does the co-operation of boys and girls in work, play and leisure, to the fullest possible extent, is scarcely recognized *per se*, and certainly not satisfied. The statistics of local education authorities show, of course, numbers of mixed elementary schools, especially for juniors, but such schools are based on a dual system that is not co-education. The children may be taught under one roof, for convenience, but out of lessons, they are segregated as far as possible. This is contrary to the basic principles of co-education, and it may be that the occasional herding and alternate segregation does more harm than good. Perhaps co-education is in fact only feasible in the fortunate circumstances of the private school with its small numbers, its leisure time for educating in a wider sense, its capacity for individual observation, and its generally heuristic atmosphere, though Mr. B. A. Howard (see page 153) is not of this opinion. Certainly at this moment true co-education is by no means an accepted fact in the state school, and in some notable cases where the experiment has been tried, the authorities have decided to revoke the scheme. There are exceptions, it is true, and here and there thorough-going secondary co-educational schools can be found, but these are sporadic efforts and do not represent the national system of education. It may be that we have not rightly assessed the attitude on this subject throughout the country, but the difficulty in the matter has been the greater owing to a certain reticence on the part of educational authorities, such as the L.C.C., who look upon the subject as 'controversial' and therefore one

upon which it is 'not advisable to express any opinion'. Junior schools are usually mixed, and for senior schools it is thought best to establish separate institutions. But it is generally agreed among the authorities that for effective organization a senior school should have from 300-400 children. This facilitates better classification and the provision of suitable forms of practical instruction. Organization is difficult and expensive for numbers under 250. The authorities are generally averse to co-education, and so single-sex schools will be established except where the numbers do not justify this. Such co-education as is to be found in the senior state elementary or secondary schools is based on economy rather than on concurrence with the general principle involved. We are not able to vouch for the policy of each educational authority, but certainly in most, and particularly in Kent, there is a tendency to convert such mixed secondary schools as exist at present into two single-sex schools, and abandon co-education. A typical case, perhaps, is that of Barking Town Urban District Council. The position as put forward by the Director of Education is as follows: 'The Barking Urban District Council have now plans for building schools within the next two or three years to accommodate 14,000 children and decided to arrange the schools as infants' schools, junior boys' schools, junior girls' schools, senior boys' schools, senior girls' schools, making no arrangement for co-education that is other than temporary'. From the same source we have new light on yet another factor in the general disinclination for co-education. The Director of Education declares that while some co-educational day schools are admirable, the children seeming to obtain in them something that is probably not open to boys and girls working separately, the number of head teachers and assistant teachers with a real belief in co-education and possessing the necessary gifts for organizing and controlling a co-educational school, is small. Actually, when it was suggested by him that two co-educational schools should be established, opposition came from the teachers. As far as the women teachers are concerned, it may be true that they are afraid lest the hope of headships may thus be dashed for them, but, generally speaking, it reflects ignorance of the real concept of co-education and a fear of untrodden paths.

In Scotland the position is much the same. We are told that everywhere co-education is in practice, but in fact the children only join together in the classroom under rigid supervision.

In Wales there is a fuller realization of the possibility of co-education. In Carmarthenshire there are three central schools and five secondary on this principle, and here the head teachers seem unanimous in the faith they express in this system of education. The children are found to stand well in comparison with children from the single-sex schools. In these Welsh schools the boys and girls associate naturally and their interaction upon one another is considered helpful generally. They do not play games together, save for occasional hockey matches, with mixed teams, but by house socials and other activities their co-operation is fostered with excellent results, both

for the particular children and the moral of the district on the whole. The heads of these schools speak with a conviction that goes far to dispel the bogies bred of stereotyped conditions, and it is well to look around and see what can be done.

III—IN CONTINENTAL STATE SCHOOLS

With few exceptions co-education has not been accepted on the continent of Europe. There the same feeling seems to pervade the authorities as is found in England, namely, that though co-education may be a great ideal, it is not practicable. Although here and there it is tolerated for the sake of economy, in these cases the confidence is lacking that makes for success. There are, of course, some interesting experimental schools, but with these at the moment we are not concerned. However, certain countries recognize the principle, and even act upon it. Thus we learn that in Bulgaria co-education not only exists, but also is based on principle and not on economic expediency. Co-education has evidently been 'a guiding principle in the history of Bulgaria, and all educational factors, including enlightened public opinion, the whole body of teachers, and the educational authorities, are in favour of co-education; It would be interesting to know how far this is general in the Balkans, but the information is unfortunately not forthcoming. In certain of the states of north-east Europe, such as Latvia, there seems to be a tendency in favour of co-education, but there is little settled policy. Thus in Riga we find four large secondary schools, one boys', one girls', one mixed where the two sexes do not work or play together, and one thorough-going co-educational institution.

France evidently does not believe in co-education, and even in the small village schools of elementary standard the boys and girls are seldom thrown together. The matter rests in the hands of the local 'maire', who usually decides upon segregation in accordance with the people's wishes. Only in the upper classes of the *lycées*, girls who take Part II of the baccalauréat, that is, philosophy and mathematics, may have to enter a class in the boys' *lycée* if the number of girls does not justify the creation of a class in their own institution. It is somewhat incongruous that in the *Lycée Français* in London, co-education is complete, and moreover a woman is principal of the whole establishment. The attitude of France in the matter of co-education is typical of Europe generally, but certain interesting points with regard to specific countries are given below.

Bulgaria—All elementary education is co-educational. Of the gymnasiums (secondary education) 70 per cent are co-educational.

Czechoslovakia—All kindergartens are co-educational, and roughly 87, 83 and 76 per cent of elementary, secondary and other schools respectively; this is a matter of economy and not of principle. There are, however, many experimental schools where American influence is felt.

Estonia—Here there is a movement towards co-education. Eighty-nine per cent of the schools are organized on this principle, and in addition all training colleges.

Finland—All elementary schools are co-educational; 52 per cent of the secondary schools are co-educational.

France—The boys and girls take exactly the same curriculum, but in separate schools, except in a very few elementary village schools.

Latvia—Most of the post-war schools are organized for co-education.

Poland—Of the public elementary schools 95 per cent are co-educational; of the private elementary schools 63 per cent are co-educational; of the public secondary schools 16 per cent are co-educational; of the private secondary schools 36 per cent are co-educational; of the State training colleges 9 per cent are co-educational; of the private training colleges 13 per cent are co-educational. The general tendency in Poland now is towards co-education in secondary schools. In 1928-29 there were as many as twenty-eight co-educational boarding schools in existence.

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Mental Tests of Young Children

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IT is twenty-five years since Binet introduced the first 'general intelligence scale' for the testing of young children. During this quarter century numerous improvements have been made in test procedures and in other aspects of the technique of measurement. Some of these developments may be listed as follows:

(1) In the conditions of testing, we have worked toward better-controlled and more standardized methods.

(2) In the selection of test material, we have attempted to choose items which are valid measures of mental ability, show a consistent performance, and sample a wide variety of tasks.

(3) In the motivation of subjects, we have given attention to problems of interest and incentive, planning tests so that within ordinary limits they will not be greatly influenced by differences in effort.

(4) With respect to units of measurement, we have realized the statistical crudeness of earlier tests and the need for scales possessing some measurable degree of equality in units.

(5) In analysis of the functions involved in 'intelligence', certain progress has been made, although not without controversy. We have attained many practical successes in measuring those intellectual abilities involved; for example, in a child's work at school, but advance has been relatively slight in understanding the nature or composition of these abilities. Some psychologists are of the opinion that problems of definition are of minor consequence, for they are less interested in what intelligence *is* than in what a so-called intelligence test will *do* in the prediction of behaviour.

When we come to the problem of testing children below school age, we encounter certain difficulties which tend to make our results less reliable and probably less valid than may be expected in the case of older children. For one thing, the pre-school youngster is not so likely to show a 'problem attitude' towards the test;

he is subject to distraction and fluctuating effort; so that test scores may be affected quite seriously by factors of interest as well as by factors of ability. Another difficulty lies in the fact that our tests cannot measure differences in basic abilities among children, if they have had very unequal training in the kinds of performances represented. In the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon tests, one of the XIV-year tests involves a series of problems which require the child mentally to reverse the hands of a clock . . . if it is 6:22, what time would it be if the big hand and the small hand were to change places? We assume that this test is fair for all fourteen-year-olds in an average modern community, since all have had opportunity to acquire the basic facts necessary in solving the problem. None of them, however, has had training in actually solving such problems, and we are thus led to expect that differences in performance will depend upon general intelligence or upon some specific problem-solving ability, rather than upon differences in environmental privilege.

With younger children, we have a less satisfactory basis for tests, inasmuch as homes provide a less uniform environment than do schools, and the cultural status of the younger child is almost wholly dependent upon the home. The writer has found, for example, that a simple test involving the drawing of a circle is exceptionally hard for four-year-old children in rural districts. This seems to be due to the fact that very young children in the country actually have less experience in the use of pencil and paper, and hence the test is for them relatively 'unfair'.

Still another difficulty in testing young children, or in any attempt at standardized experimental procedures, arises from their occasional shyness or discouragement in the presence of strangers; this is likely to be particularly evident in the case of tests requiring verbal responses.

To compensate for these various handicaps it has been necessary to devise special techniques for young children. More attention is given to

the interest value of tests and to their possible appeal as 'games'. The verbal element is reduced in favour of tests requiring manual rather than vocal responses; below eighteen months the scales must of course be almost entirely non-verbal.

In the younger children the personal factor in the examiner becomes increasingly important. She must be deft in maintaining *rapprochement* with the child, adapting the rhythm of testing to the rhythm of the child's effort, distributing praise skilfully but not too lavishly, and terminating the test schedule before the child becomes too bored or too fatigued.

In view of these points, it is evident that a rigidly exact procedure is impossible with young children. An inflexible standardization will defeat its own purpose, for if (as may be expedient with older children) we administer tests according to an unchanging formula, we may expect to encounter changing psychological conditions. The best we can hope for is that by an intelligent managing of the external situation we can keep some sort of psychological standardization—a reasonably constant level of interest and effort.

Examiners who have been trained in an orthodox school may protest at this point of view on the ground that any relaxation of rigid rules of testing will be certain to introduce personal errors. The only answer to this criticism is that our aim in testing is to adopt whatever procedures will give the highest reliability and validity. Methods which fail to take into account the fluctuating interests of children will introduce errors for which no correction can readily be made. Methods which permit some slight degree of flexibility (such as shifting the order of tests, or postponing a test on evidence of fatigue) will of course introduce variable subjective factors, but these can be corrected, to a large extent, by the use of repeated tests and, where possible, of different examiners.

At the University of California we have employed a schedule of pre-school tests which may be cited to illustrate general methods in this field. Our problem has been to devise a continuous scale extending from birth to school age, applicable to the same children in cumulative retests. A number of existing scales cover a part or all of this period. For infants, the best-

known tests are those which have been developed by Gesell at the Yale Psycho-Clinic. A collection of somewhat similar tests is included in the Linfert-Hierholzer scale. The Kuhlman Revision of the Binet Scale contains tests extending down to the three-months level. The Merrill-Palmer scale, developed by Dr. Stutsman, represents a valuable assembly of tests standardized for the age range from eighteen to seventy-eight months; this age range, or one slightly greater, is also covered by a new pre-school scale in process of standardization at the University of Minnesota.

In inspecting these and other groups of tests, one is impressed by the very different character of the procedures employed at different ages. In the first few months, tests are necessarily based upon rather simple motor or perceptual processes. At one month, for example, the child is held at the observer's shoulder, and a record is made as to whether he lifts his head or adjusts, posturally, to being taken up. A red ring is held within easy visual range, and a record is made of visual fixation; the ring is placed in his hand, and he passes the test if he grasps the ring and retains definite hold of it. At six months the tests include the manipulation of a small cube; the normal child at this age should show a simultaneous flexion of the fingers, and a grasping of the object by *opposing* the thumb and fingers. Postural development has carried the child to the point of being able to sit, momentarily, without support. A record is made of his ability to discriminate strangers from familiar members of the household (social perception) and of the degree of development of vocal habits. At twelve months more difficult manual tasks are assigned, such as unwrapping a cube from a paper bundle, and using a string adaptively to pull a ring. An imitation test, at this age level, consists in rattling a spoon in a cup with a stirring motion; the test is passed if the child is able to make a noise by a similar motion. Here, also, we note the appearance of certain very simple verbal tests: an adaptive response to the command 'No, no,' and the use of two or more words in spontaneous vocalization. From this point, the test schedules become increasingly similar to those employed with older children and with adults. They are concerned with higher levels of skilled perform-

ance, and with situations which demand a persistent yet flexible attack upon the problem involved. The tests become increasingly verbal in character, and less dependent upon postural adjustments or simple muscular co-ordinations. At fifteen months, the California tests which we have used (drawn from various sources) belong to five chief classifications: peg boards, block building, drawing, form discrimination, and language comprehension. By twenty-four months four additional classes have been added: the discrimination of spatial relationships, the discrimination of size and number, object-memory, and language facility.

It cannot be asserted that any of these classes of tests measures single abilities. In each case we are probably dealing with more or less complex and overlapping groups of functions. The rate of growth in these various functions may be uneven. In individual children we sometimes find a very marked acceleration in one group of traits (as in motor skill), coupled with a retarded growth in, say, language facility. As a rule, however, if the tests are properly standardized and normed, we find from one month to another a fairly steady advance through the whole series of abilities, and the rate of this advance gives us some basis for predicting the child's future mental status. This raises the question of the practical usefulness of pre-school tests.

Among school children, the measurement of intelligence has proved to be a valuable adjunct to teaching, assisting us in the guidance of the individual pupil, and in the classification of groups according to scholastic promise. With younger children we have usually been satisfied with a *laissez-faire* policy as to guidance; but in the future this will be less true. In view of the very rapid rate of mental growth up to five years of age, it is possible that during this period, more than later, our regime should include some specific consideration of the child's intelligence. The following excerpt from a habit-clinic record illustrates the errors frequently made by parents in appraising their children's intellectual status:

Jack, age 6, and Edwin, age 9, are the two youngest children in a family of four. The father is a university graduate, with post-graduate training in a school of engineering, and has reached

more than average success in his profession. Both parents have high hopes for Edwin, regarding him as a potential 'genius', and making every effort to give him special educational advantages. Jack, on the other hand, is a source of great disappointment to the parents and other relatives. They regard him as extremely stupid, if not actually feeble-minded. He is very retiring, self-conscious and awkward; his physical unattractiveness leads to his being neglected, or to being discriminated against in all situations in which his brother is also involved. A mental test of these two children reveals an IQ of 105 for the genius, and an IQ of 113 (superior) for the supposedly retarded child. Subsequent school history has indicated that in spite of physical and social handicaps the younger boy is able to progress more rapidly than his favoured elder brother.

Similar cases are by no means uncommon. It is interesting to note that the family discrimination against Jack has apparently had little effect upon his intelligence; this is in accord with the belief that intelligence is primarily an expression of hereditary factors. But in his emotional adjustments Jack has suffered severely from the family situation, and in the long run his older brother will also suffer, since his parents have set for him a goal out of proportion to his actual capacities.

In the case of child adoption, all will agree that a foster family should have some basis for predicting a child's future mental level. During the first four or five months of life this cannot be done with security, except that of course certain cases of marked retardation can be clinically recognized. At one year of age, nearly as consistent results can be obtained by repeated mental tests as is ordinarily possible with children of school age. It is possible, however, to obtain results which are consistent within a limited age range, but which give a poor prediction of status five years later. We have reason to believe that our tests are already sufficiently valid to be worth using. A greater refinement of the scales will be possible when a sample of children, tested cumulatively in the early ages, will have reached the school period. We shall then be able to check each test item, at each age, against more adequate criteria of intelligence, and thus make a selection of tests according to their efficiency in predicting what a child's intelligence will be after a period of growth.



A School Tramp

[*Friends School, Saffron Walden, Essex*]



Children Resting on West Lawn

[*Halstead Place, Sevenoaks, Kent*]

The Present Situation in the English Nursery School Movement

GRACE OWEN, B.Sc., M.Ed.

Hon. Sec. of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain; formerly Principal of the Mather and City of Manchester Training Colleges: Editor and Joint Author of 'Nursery School Education'

AT the Conference called by the Nursery School Association last November, Mr. Morgan Jones, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, said: 'The nursery school is as essential at one end of the system of public education as the university is at the other'. This remark indicates that now at last the government of the day, supported by an awakened public opinion, is envisaging nursery schools as something more than sporadic efforts to ameliorate the lot of little children doomed to pass their early childhood in the blackest spots of our great cities. It has begun to recognize them rather as the rootlets which minister invisibly to the support of the whole tree.

A new situation is arising. Less than two years ago, the number of nursery schools—which in England had been almost stationary for ten years—began to increase steadily. In two years' time the present number—something over forty—will be more than doubled provided that the plans now under consideration are allowed to mature. We are reaching the stage when the more progressive Education Authorities actively desire to have their nursery schools, and when the omission of any plans for providing them in any area tends to call for explanation, if not apology. The time is approaching when the nursery school will be a recognized feature of the national education system. Doubtless there are many set-backs yet to come, and the temptations of mushroom development are not usually those which most beset us in England—but it is well to realize that inevitably and rightly the conditions, characteristic activities and relationships of the nursery school as we conceive it in England, must gradually become more clearly defined. The multiplication of nursery schools under public control will lead to the wide adoption of certain patterns of procedure. Under our English method of

local control by a body of citizens without special educational qualifications, it is obvious that these patterns of procedure will be derived from what is generally appreciated in existing nursery schools, and is considered to be the best-possible-under-the-circumstances of each case, decided with due consideration to the observations of the Board of Education on the plans proposed.

This phase of the movement is a dangerous one. At the same time it offers a great opportunity. In the history of the past, we find that the educational advance of the moment has again and again been stereotyped, so that it became a sheer obstacle to the next step forward. In the matter of nursery schools, we have the opportunity during the next few years of taking each step with such intelligence and insight, with such a true sense of what is fundamental and what is superficial, that the growth of to-day shall wholly minister to the growth of to-morrow. The new situation calls, not for a *laissez-faire* policy, but for an active response from all those who in their various spheres are shaping the nursery school of the future.

The first need is for the careful building up of existing and new nursery schools so that they may fulfil, as perfectly as possible, the ideals and purposes that underlie them. This is not a plea for luxurious equipment and abundant staffing, but for the bringing together in each nursery school of all the conditions necessary to the serious carrying out of its functions, and for a persistent concern that each nursery school shall actually demonstrate as fully as possible the potentialities of the movement.

Though England has been backward in the use of methods of research in connection with the development of its conception of the proper conditions and functions of a nursery school, it has nevertheless evolved clear and balanced

ideas as to its fundamental purposes, and as to the chief means by which these purposes may be carried out. The struggle to carry on the nursery school under inadequate conditions has in many cases handicapped the full realization of its known possibilities. Nevertheless, what has been accomplished has been so valuable and convincing that it has largely converted the public to the support of the movement. As the conditions of each nursery school are strengthened, the future development of the movement is so far safeguarded.

On the medical side, open-air conditions, a balanced daily routine, regular medical inspection, prompt treatment of defect and ailment, close attention to nutrition, insistence on a high standard of cleanliness in co-operation with the home, are all fundamental requirements in every efficient nursery school. The nursery school sets before it the great aim of eliminating that 35 per cent of preventible physical defect which now handicaps children entering school at five; but this cannot be accomplished without steady concentration on the provision and use of all the conditions required. A point not always realized is the often partial attendance of the children during the three years of the nursery school period. Too often it is found that for the individual child the period was cut short at one end or the other, and thus for him the full benefit of the nursery school could not be achieved. Sometimes this happens because the waiting list is so long that the child does not get admitted until long after his mother has made application for him. This also is one of the most serious weaknesses of the nursery class, and was discussed in Miss de Lissa's article in the April issue of this magazine. However beneficial, therefore, a short period in a nursery school or class may be to a child, the actual elimination of physical defect and the establishment of physical health can scarcely be looked for under such circumstances. There is accumulating evidence of individual cases showing how extraordinarily effective life in a nursery school may be in eliminating grievous physical defect and weakness. It would be illuminating if the percentage of children who have attended the nursery school for from two to three years could be obtained, and of those the percentage that have passed into an infants'

school physically fit.

No less important than the medical side is the thorough carrying out of the more especially educational aspects of the work. In this connection the question of staffing is all-important. Inadequate staffing spells superficiality or neglect on the educational side. It is perhaps this aspect of the work that is least generally understood and involves the most difficult problems of the nursery school. In contrast with the care of the child's health, the education of mind and character is entirely in the hands of the superintendent and her assistant staff. With regard to the physical health of the children, many of the conditions are provided directly by the Local Education Authority, by its choice of site, buildings, and equipment: doctor and nurse assist in securing the health of the individual child; but in matters of mental development and personality, all depends upon the quality of the work not only of the superintendent, but also of her assistants.

The superintendent's influence is felt by every individual child in that she is responsible for the 'educational atmosphere' of the whole school, but many of the adjustments of the environment to the changing needs of each child must fall into the hands of assistants whom rule-of-thumb directions can never enable to meet the needs of each situation as it arises.

It is true that the teaching method of the nursery school is to give the child experience in exercising freedom of choice and activity within a suitably prepared environment, but it is a mistake to forget that he is forever absorbing influences and ideas for good or ill from the grown-up person nearest to him. Thus it is essential that the staffing of a nursery school shall be such that the individual child shall be in close touch during the day with skilled assistant teachers who meet difficult situations with real educational wisdom and skill. It matters to each child that his strivings and questions and comments during the day shall be met by someone who has sympathy and imagination, is herself in command of good speech, and can be trusted to respond helpfully. It matters that the changes of occupation of individual children from hour to hour be arranged or observed with intelligence and knowledge of their significance. It matters, in the encouraging

of useful and healthy habits, that actions such as the washing of hands and the handling of chairs and mugs be well taught. The use of sense-training apparatus to any good effect involves skilled supervision, although the teacher may be scarcely seen or heard. To achieve purposeful freedom is a great task. Paradoxical as it may seem, the children engaging in their self-chosen activities whether in the garden or the playroom, whether they elect to play alone or with other children, are constantly making demands upon the utmost wisdom of their grown-up helpers, who desire for them a development that is truly free and healthy, leading to self-mastery and peace with themselves and the world about them.

There are many who in their minds brush aside the idea of the importance of the educational aspect of the nursery school. These see in it an admirable agent for health improvement and appreciate the generally educational influence of good habits. But the idea of paying much attention to the mental development of the child under five years of age seems to them absurd. Yet modern psychology assures us that mental development goes on more rapidly during this period than at any subsequent time. Is it therefore, in truth absurd, to study its various manifestations in the individual child day by day, and to seek to establish his healthy mental development and prevent confusion or starvation of mind, as earnestly as to establish his physical health and prevent disease?

It is only the sound provision of both the medical and the educational requirements of each successive nursery school that will ensure in the future the returns in the healthy development of early childhood we desire for the nation.

In order to secure this, we have first to look to the Local Education Authorities to provide an adequate setting for the work to be done. With them lies the provision of the healthy site, the open-air building and garden, the wise planning of rooms and equipment. With them it lies to demonstrate the economically planned yet efficient nursery school which will convince the unconverted public of the reasonableness and real profit of the expenditure involved.

It is the Education Committees, too, that we have to ask for a real understanding of the staffing question. There is need at the present

time that those authorities which are staffing new nursery schools should expect in their candidates special training for the work. It appears not to be adequately realized that a sufficient supply of suitably trained teachers for nursery schools will only come when it is understood by candidates that this training is required. This is obviously important if the standard and quality of nursery school education is to be sustained and progressively raised. Efficient staffing in the future would be furthered if it were made known through advertisements of vacant posts, and otherwise, that teachers who wish to obtain appointments in nursery schools are expected to be specially qualified. This would undoubtedly give the encouragement to teachers that is at present lacking, to apply for a suitable training course at a college which can offer it.

The full working out of the problem of the 'helpers' is still in the future, and will in its turn need much care. It is already clear, however, that the experience of a full-time helper—whether called an assistant, a probationer, or a student-nurse—cannot be recognized as part of the training of a teacher, but only as a valuable preliminary to it. The nursery school movement must not be allowed to lend a practical support to the resuscitation of the supplementary teacher, nor to the perpetuation of the uncertificated teacher, nor to any blind-alley occupation. Helpers of all kinds in the nursery school, however, receive an excellent training in child care which prepares for the calling of a children's nurse, and for further training as a hospital nurse or a social worker.

While the Local Education Authorities control to so large an extent the character of the development of the nursery school in the immediate future, there are other influences of equal or even more importance in the control of other bodies. The training colleges which have devised and are devising schemes of training for nursery school teachers bear the responsibility of building up an adequate conception in the minds of teachers as to what a nursery school is—what are its aims, and how best they may be carried out. They bear also the responsibility for fitting the future nursery school teacher not only to understand but to carry out in practice the

*Sun-bathing
in
the Garden*



*Rommany Nursery
School, Gipsy Hill,
London, S.E.19*

various demands of the work. There is perhaps no sphere of teaching that requires a wider or deeper preparation—nor yet a more practical one. It should be remembered that the nursery school superintendent deals with a period of life almost new to teachers and only recently studied closely by psychologists and members of the medical profession. Then, in addition to close practical and theoretical knowledge of child life at this period, the superintendent must be an adept at organization. She must be able to deal also, not only with little children, but with assistant teachers, and she must train all her helpers. She must be qualified to deal with minor ailments in children and be practised in keeping records of their condition, both physical and mental. She must be informed as to the proper nutrition of young children, and supervise the preparation of food as well as watch the children's response to the food set before them. She must often deal with and persuade great ignorance in parents, and be prepared to co-operate with outside organ-

izations concerned with the welfare of young children. The training colleges must prepare her for all these duties, giving her adequate theoretical knowledge and an abundant practical training in all aspects of the work. Not least important in such a training is the assistance it should offer to the student in the development of her own powers of personality.

While there is much in such a course that is common to the preparation of infants' teachers and of all teachers, it will be realized that the training of nursery school teachers must consist of something more than a few additions or alterations to existing courses. It should be thought out as a unity in itself, all parts inter-related and contributing progressively to a well-thought-out conception of the function of a nursery school as carried out by its staff. The provision of sufficient opportunities for the adequate training of suitably selected teachers would seem to be one of the most important needs of the immediate future for the nursery school movement.

As the number of nursery schools increases, and certain methods of procedure become more and more widely accepted, the urgency of the need for the provision for further research into the nature of growth during the first years of life, and the true characteristics of a favourable environment, must increase also. It needs little imagination to realize how easily a superficial conventionality might settle upon our nursery schools, which are now in such a healthy state of flux and ferment. It is only as our universities and training colleges supply this living stream of research in the future, that the rich possibilities of the nursery school movement can ever be realized.

The question of inspection is of great practical importance. Some of the new nursery schools have been and will be carried on in lonely circumstances. The responsibility of taking charge of the first nursery school opened in the town is a heavy one. It is in such circumstances that the support and encouragement of specially qualified and experienced inspectors are most needed to assist in the achievement of creating an efficient nursery school.

But when Local Authorities, training colleges and universities and inspectors have done their best, it remains for the nursery school itself to work out its own salvation in close co-operation with the home, and to demonstrate more and more clearly, as conditions improve, what

life in a nursery school may mean to each child that passes through it. As each nursery school superintendent strives with increasing success to realize the possibilities of nursery school life for her children, the more sure we may be that the day will come in our own country when it will be realized that 'the nursery school is as essential at one end of the system of education as the university is at the other'.

THE JUNE ISSUE

THE MENTAL HEALTH OF THE
PRE-SCHOOL CHILD

HOME AND SCHOOL RELATIONS

CHOOSING A CAREER—II

A BOARDING SCHOOL FOR
WORKING-CLASS CHILDREN

OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES
AND ACADEMIC WORK

Mr. Albert Mansbridge, 38 High Oaks Road, Welwyn Garden City, Hertfordshire, has been entrusted with the writing of a record of the life and work of the late Margaret McMillan, and would be glad if readers of THE NEW ERA would send him any important letters, papers or pamphlets they may possess. Personal memories would be most helpful. All documents would be returned in due course.



The results of the COVER COMPETITION will be published in June.

A 'New' Boarding School for Girls in Switzerland

ENID FARR

Member of the Staff of the Buserinstitut at Chexbres

THIS account of one of the Buser schools in Switzerland will give an insight into the school life of girls to-day. More and more girls are being sent abroad yearly to finish their education amid different surroundings and customs, to learn a new language, and to acquire the *savoir-faire* that is attained only in a foreign country.

It is becoming more widely realized that the best dowry parents can bestow on their children, in view of their future careers, is a sound education and rational instruction. Women are to-day forced to prepare for the new tasks that are being presented by the economic and social transformations of our times. Every aptitude, every faculty, however latent it may be, must be developed and put into action in order to form personalities fit to cope with modern existence. Professor Buser thoroughly understands the task of educating girls for this modern life, and our school at Chexbres benefits from

his long experience and proved practical activity.

The school itself is situated in the immediate vicinity of the village of Chexbres on the renowned Route de la Corniche, and is surrounded by a large shady park. Its numerous balconies, its large, lofty, airy rooms, and its magnificent terraces, form an ideal physical environment for adolescent youth.

The principal object of the Buser schools is to develop clear-sightedness in the girls, and to enable them to fulfil normally all the tasks of their future careers. The plan of the 'activity school' has been introduced and is being successfully carried out, thus avoiding methods in which memory plays the principal part and knowledge is exclusively derived from books. We try to awaken and foster in our girls the faculties of thought and of observation, and of initiative and joy in work. The principals personally estimate the distinctive qualities and the preparatory instruction of every pupil.



Eurhythmics on the Lawn

[Buserinstitut, Chexbres, Switzerland]

This treatment greatly increases the pleasure the pupils take in study and exercises a most favourable influence on their progress. The system of small free classes has proved very valuable and is certainly an excellent guarantee against indolence and laziness. It has been used on a very large scale at the Buser school at Teufen, where it forms one of the fundamental principles. During the year 1928-1929 the eighty-four pupils at this school belonged to more than one hundred and fifty groups.

Another principle of our schools is the development of personality. In this case the results which can be obtained in a private boarding school are truly remarkable, for a well directed school of this kind has no difficulty in eliminating the divergencies which can exist between school and home. The close collaboration of education and general instruction influence favourably the girls' normal development. Girls of different nationalities (and generally of different religions) learn to know and to respect each other. Characters of varying calibre and gifts exercise a salutary reciprocal influence, and the school becomes a pleasant centre of social education. We arrange at Chexbres charming

little *fêtes en famille*—pleasant musical evening parties, literary, artistic or scientific *causeries*, moving-pictures and lantern-lectures on the history of art, and visits to theatres and concerts. These varied interests both influence the girls' general culture and inspire them with a taste for and interest in friendly family gatherings and parties.

Special emphasis is laid on physical culture and hygiene. Professor Buser has always acted on the principle that one of the most important tasks of an educator is to develop in the girls entrusted to his care, health, strength and endurance, and at Chexbres School, in its exceptionally good situation, he has every opportunity for carrying out this responsible work well. Frequent recreations in the open air, daily walks, gymnastic and rhythmic exercises, excursions, alpine trips and climbs, tennis, swimming, skating, ski-ing and bob-sleighting, wholesome and abundant food, all are a guarantee of excellent results from the physical point of view.

The principals bestow their very special care on the teaching of French, the official language, and our girls very soon learn to express themselves as well in this language as in their mother tongue.

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 179

Books Received

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION. *Thirtieth Yearbook. Part I: The Status of Rural Education; Part II: The Text-book in American Education.* Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois.

REPORT OF A CONFERENCE ON MENTAL WELFARE, held at British Medical Association House, London, in December 1930. *The most interesting part of this Report from a general educational point of view is the discussion on School Re-organization and the Retarded Child in the Senior School.* Central Association for Mental Welfare (Inc.) 24 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1. 3s 6d.

LITERATURE IN THE CLASSROOM. H. K. Prescott, M.A., D.Phil., Assistant Master at Eton College. *A book to help the pupil gradually to learn to distinguish the good book from the bad.* Evans Bros. Ltd., London. 3s. 6d.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS EDUCATIONAL SURVEY, VOL. II, No. 1. *Secretariat of the League of Nations, Geneva.* 2s.; \$0.50.

SOME METHODS EMPLOYED IN THE CHOICE OF BOOKS FOR CHILDREN'S LIBRARIES. *Report of the Inquiry undertaken by the International Bureau of Education, Geneva.* 1 S.Fr.

BASKETRY AND WEAVING. *A description of the elements of the craft, and its value as an educative factor.* Pitman & Sons, London. 3s. 6d.

WOODWORK: an art craft for senior schools. *An account of the author's experience in teaching handwork to boys of eleven to fifteen years of age. Introduction, and first year and second year courses.* By T. Burbidge. Macmillan & Co., London. 5s.

SCIENCE IN THE MAKING, Pamphlet No. 66. THE CENSUS, Pamphlet No. 65. B.B.C., Savoy Hill London. 3d. each.

Choosing a Career—I

ALEC RODGER, B.A.

of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology, London

‘VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE’, an elderly gentleman asked me recently, ‘what’s that?’ I explained to him that it was the name given to the attempt which psychologists were making to solve the problem of the choice of a career. ‘Oh’, he replied, puckering his brow and shaking his head, ‘we never had anything like that in my young days; though’, he added brightly, ‘I did once have my bumps read by Professor Tootle on the sands at Brighton.’

It may seem strange to us in the nineteen-thirties that this business of ‘reading bumps’ should have been treated with respect by people so near to us—historically—as our fathers and grandfathers, but even to-day the existence of small shops and booths advertising the faith, if not the works, of phrenologists reminds us that the time is not long past when comparatively well-educated people found themselves able to take phrenology seriously.

No thoroughly scientific approach to the vocational problem was made until the beginning of this century, when the exponents of what was really a new science of psychology decided to see of what use their findings could be in the solution of it. They had already produced results which the medical profession had found to be of value; it is, in fact, chiefly for their contributions to this branch of study that modern psychologists have become famous. They had also produced results which educationists had found to be of great importance for their work. To that fact *The New Era* is itself a witness. And now they were to extend their field to deal with the many problems of daily work, including among them the one with which we are now concerned.

The first vocational guidance bureau to be opened was American. England, in her wisdom, waited until the inevitable preliminary mistakes had been made and some experience had been gained. But when, in 1921, the National Institute of Industrial Psychology was founded, it set out as one of its aims ‘the elaboration and

application of suitable methods, so as to secure (a) more efficient and scientific selection of workers, and (b) more reliable guidance for adolescents when choosing their life’s work.’

(a) is the branch of vocational psychology known as vocational selection. It is concerned with the choice of the best person for any particular occupation. One of the earliest investigations of this kind was conducted in a telephone exchange. The problem was to select, from among the many applicants for a few vacant posts, those who would probably make the best operators. The psychologists who were called in studied carefully the nature of the work involved, and decided what abilities were most to be desired in a telephone operator. Some of these—general intelligence, memory for names and numbers, speedy reaction, and accurate aim—are obvious; others are less obvious. Tests were devised for these various aptitudes and given to the applicants. Those who did well in them were accepted. The advantage of such a method over the old-fashioned interview is apparent. The interview is by no means useless; it gives, if nothing else, an insight into the temperamental qualities of the candidate—his sociability, his aggressiveness, his cheerfulness, and so on. But, no matter how experienced the interviewer may be, it does not afford any reliable indication of some of the things that matter most to the employer—the worker’s general ability, his mechanical ability, or his manual dexterity.

(b) is vocational guidance, the branch of vocational psychology which is concerned with the choice of the most suitable occupation for any particular person.

Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, in speaking on one occasion of the work of the Institute, declared that the tragedy of the misfit was the most universal tragedy of our modern life. ‘Boys and girls’, he said, ‘are put to occupations absolutely unfitted for them. Yet’, he added with truth, ‘every one of them is fitted for some occupation, some circumstances, some interests.’

In 1922, in conjunction with what was then the Industrial Fatigue Research Board, the Institute commenced research work on this problem in the King's Cross area of London, and later on a generous grant from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust enabled the Institute, in conjunction with the Ministry of Labour and the London County Council, to carry on this experiment on a much more extensive scale. The result of this and similar investigations has been the elaboration of a reliable technique for the measurement of an individual's abilities.

The actual examination, which lasts approximately three hours, has two main objects: (1) the testing of intellectual capacities, including general intelligence and what are known as special abilities, and (2) the observation of temperamental characteristics.

General intelligence, in the sense in which the term is used by psychologists, is inborn, all-round intellectual ability. It is not to be confused with 'knowledge', which is always acquired. Our general intelligence, so far from consisting in the knowledge we have acquired, is, in fact, the inborn ability which we must first of all have possessed in order to acquire that knowledge.

'Special abilities' is a term which may be used to include such aptitudes as mechanical ability, musical ability, arithmetical ability, literary facility, and manual dexterity. These have been shown to be largely independent of general intelligence. For example, it is no uncommon thing to find a remarkably high level of manual dexterity in people who have precious little common sense. In the same way we sometimes meet extremely intelligent men whose mechanical ability carries them no farther than the winding-up of their wrist-watches.

Tests, of such a nature that their results can be expressed numerically, have been devised for most of these aptitudes, and before they are used in the Institute's vocational examination they are 'tried out' on large groups of boys and girls of all ages. It is therefore possible, by comparing his or her score in each test with the scores obtained by thousands of others, to see how each examinee stands in relation to others of the same age.

The tests of general intelligence are, of course, the most important, and it may be of interest to give some illustrations of the kind of test in general use. Usually five or six tests are bound together in booklet form, and each of them consists of 20 or 30 questions.

One type of test is that called Analogies :

Underline whichever of the four words in small letters goes with the third word (in capital letters) in the way in which the second word (in capital letters) goes with the first word.

Example: BLACK is to WHITE as NIGHT is to red, moon, day, cloud.

Twenty or thirty problems similar to this are given, and two or three minutes are allowed in which the candidates solve as many as they can.

Another type is the Completion test:

Underline the word that makes the best sense whenever there are three printed one above the other.

	North
Example: If C is	South of A and B is
	West
East	South
North of C, then A is	East of B.
South-east	West

All the problems in all the tests demand perfectly definite answers, so that, no matter who corrects the papers, the scores will not vary. Nevertheless, difficulties of interpretation often arise, and it is always advisable to have the examination conducted by someone who has had a training in psychology.

In addition to paper tests of the kind described there are a number of performance tests of intelligence. In these the examinee displays his general ability in a more practical way.

Tests for special abilities are many and various. It is difficult, of course, to devise standardized tests for literary facility and for some of the others, but no doubt these will come in the course of time. Many of the tests used at present are somewhat tentative. A useful beginning has been made, but there is great need for further research.

In a concluding article I shall discuss the second part of the Institute's vocational examination—the observation of temperamental characteristics—and the way in which the final conclusions and vocational recommendations are formulated.

International Notes

International Education

Two articles of special value in relation to international education appear in the January number of *Educational Survey* (League of Nations, Geneva). In his article, 'The Spirit of Solidarity and International Co-operation', Professor Piaget writes: 'International education . . . cannot be reduced to oral instruction given to children once for all . . . international education must profit by the methods of *the new teaching* [the italics are ours] and must be based on child psychology . . . the essential point is that in every field—as much in mathematics and grammar as in history and civics—the child should work in an atmosphere of intellectual as well as moral understanding and co-operation. The class must be a real society, accustomed to free discussion and objective research; that is the only way in which the great ideas of solidarity and justice, encountered in practical life before becoming the subjects of study, can teach a profitable lesson.'

Dr. H. von Bracken in his article, 'Psychological Problems of Peace Education', traces the latent war spirit, or struggle for power that is in us all, to the feelings of inferiority with which the child begins his life. Grown-up people are big, he is little, and he must strive against them to keep his own integrity, to compensate for his feelings of inferiority. These conditions are re-enforced by wrong systems of education, the education of authority, of punishment. The modification of this latent combativeness lies with the new parent and teacher who substitute co-operation for authority. 'What is needed is nothing less than a completely new form of school life. All that excites the striving for power, all the stimulation of ambition, all the rough and all the refined forms of punishment, must be banished from school life.'

Austria

The Hellerau-Laxenburg Summer School for rhythmical, musical and physical education, will be held in May, June, July and August. A special course will be given in English from 6th July to 1st August, and for Kindergarten Teachers from 18th to 30th May. Details from the Secretary, at Laxenburg Castle, nr. Vienna.

Great Britain

Industrial Psychology—The 1930 report of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology (England) contains an account of the Carnegie experiment in the vocational guidance of elementary school pupils, which involved the testing of 600 children. A book containing the results of this experiment, *Methods of Choosing a Career*, will be published by Messrs. Harrap & Co. (London). Similar experiments in Fife and Birmingham are still in progress.

World Explorers—Skipper Ruth Knowles has changed the name of her organization from the Honourable Company of Friendly Adventurers to World Explorers. The new name can be easily and correctly translated into foreign languages and it ingeniously contracts into W.E.! World Explorers are taking a great stride forward by expanding into Canada and the United States. Skipper Knowles has just returned from an extensive trans-Atlantic tour; she was received with enthusiasm by school and educational authorities everywhere. She is offering to American and Canadian boys and men unique and inexpensive cruises (lasting six and eight weeks) through France, Germany and England. The 1931 Castle Cruises started at the beginning of April and are in full swing. These tours, to visit the people of the Rhine, are immensely popular with the youth of England. For six guineas, if over eighteen years old, and for five guineas, if under, World Explorers can take these fortnight trips and spend an unusual holiday, swimming, hiking, exploring ancient and out-of-the-way places, and making friends with the local people.

Germany

International Education Review—A new international review of education appeared in April under the editorship of Prof. Dr. Friedrich Schneider, of Cologne (Publishers, J. P. Bachem, Cologne. Price \$3 per annum). The review is in English, French and German.

India

All Asia Educational Conference—In December 1930 the first All Asia Educational Conference was held at Benares and was attended by over 15,000 people.

Nursery School Association of Great Britain

In the shadow—as we seem to be—of another 'Economy' Campaign, and with bitter memories of the immediate effect of the Geddes Axe on the education of little children, it is encouraging to read that at the recent Yorkshire Conference of Head Teachers in Bradford, a strong resolution moved by the President (Miss Beal, of Sheffield) was passed urging a more speedy advance 'in the establishment of nursery schools or the formation of nursery classes in infants' schools where accommodation will permit'.

On the other hand it is disappointing that the Lanark Education Committee has decided to proceed no farther in its plan to establish a nursery school. It is well to note that while there was able support for the proposal, the well-worn contention that 'it would be entirely wrong for the committee to spend the ratepayers' money in relieving mothers of their natural responsibilities', prevailed in the end.

Croydon has held a public debate on the need for nursery schools. A special sub-committee had recommended the provision of a nursery school, but the proposal was turned down. In this case the arguments of the opposition as reported in the press were:—

(1) The danger of 'forcing' children by educating them too early.

(2) That 'these well-meaning people' would make us into a nation filleted: a nation without any backbone. Children up to the age of five should be in the homes of their parents, and not brought up by the State.'

(3) That the Nursery School is a very expensive scheme. Nevertheless, the Chairman noted that the meeting had shown enthusiasm for nursery schools. He pointed out, however, that much education of public opinion would be needed before the Education Committee would feel justified in going forward.

Princess Mary, Countess of Harewood, visited the George Dent Nursery School in Darlington on 24th March and inspected the recent extension of the building to accommodate 100 children.

The opening of Dagenham Nursery School by Miss Ishbel MacDonald draws attention to the urgent need that nursery schools should be provided for in the new housing schemes whether in London or in the provinces. At Dagenham, Miss Muriel Lester and her supporters have supplied the need that the L.C.C. failed to realize.

It is to be hoped that in other new districts it may be seen at an earlier stage how worth while it would be to plan the sites of Nursery Schools at the same time that the houses and streets are designed.

The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education is following up its Report on the Primary School by an inquiry into the education of young children under eight. The reference is as follows:— 'To consider and report on the training and teaching of children attending nursery schools and infants' departments of public elementary schools, and the further development of such educational provision for children up to the age of seven plus.' The Committee has already begun the inquiry.

The Importance of Diet

[The following letter has been received from a regular subscriber to the *New Era*. Conditions similar to those described are probably familiar to a large number of readers, for a really bad feature of many an otherwise good school is the diet. Parents have it in their own hands; they have every right to know how their children are fed. Many, knowing them to be improperly fed, lack the courage to protest, and trust to the holidays to make up for deficiencies—a trust that from the health point of view is entirely misplaced. No amount of good food over a period of two or three weeks can counteract the bad effects of insufficient or unsuitable food over a period of two or three months. When will parents awake to the urgency of this, and summon courage to voice the protests they know are long overdue?]

The Editor

The New Era

18th March 1931

DEAR MADAM,

I was interested to read in the February issue of the *New Era*, advice to parents to see school menus before entering their children as pupils at boarding schools. As I have been recently in touch with several cases where children at expensive schools received inadequate or poor food, I should like to point out that to see a menu on paper is not sufficient.

Among the facts that came to my notice were the following:—

- (1) Use of foreign chilled meat. The first few slices of each joint were eatable but the rest of the meat was too tough for the pupils to chew. As the older children were served first, it meant that the younger boys got the tough meat and went dinnerless several days a week.
- (2) Fruit announced on menu and in prospectus became in practice apples of poor quality served twice a week. Salad was unknown and vegetables badly cooked and often dirty.
- (3) A group of nearly fifty pupils presented a petition that their breakfast might be served to them hot instead of cold. There was no investigation. Instead, they were immediately punished, somewhat severely. The psychological effect was marked, for there was an immediate reaction that as no reasonable request was regarded, they were free to rebel against all forms of authority.

In all the cases mentioned, the fees charged amounted to more than two hundred pounds a year. No doubt many of your readers could furnish similar experiences.

Can there be real reform however, until the practice is adopted of separating the question of diet from the rest of the school, and placing the meals and their preparation under the charge of a properly qualified person? It is impossible for a head mistress to supervise the pupils, their lessons, and the psychological problems presented, and to oversee the kitchen as well. To those who object that the salary could not be afforded of an extra member of the staff, we suggest that such a person, by reason of her technical knowledge, could buy provisions more reasonably and plan the meals with more regard for the varying economic conditions of the moment, than can be achieved by the usual haphazard system. She would thus probably save her salary by her economies, and the gain in health and good temper to the school would more than compensate any initial expense. In the meantime a number of parents are refusing to send their children to boarding schools, not because they do not believe in the system, but because they require, wisely, that growing boys and girls should receive properly cooked food of reasonable quality.

Yours truly,

W.

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Book Reviews

The Education of the Whole Man. By L. P. Jacks. University of London Press. 6s.

On its title page we are informed that this book is a sequel to *The Inner Sentinel*. The same author's *The Art of Living Together* might well have been mentioned too, as it seems to belong to the same sequence. Any one not knowing the author's record might be inclined to think that his 'plea for a new spirit' came a little late in the day and argued some ignorance of much that had been done by such societies, for instance, as the Committee and Conferences on New Ideals in Education, the New Education Fellowship, and others. Let any such read the book, and they will find that Professor Jacks has much to say that needs saying. The book is a collection of papers and addresses with a few chapters added, but has unity of thought and purpose. And, if there is a good deal of repetition, the things repeated are worth repeating many times.

Naturally, the expression, 'the whole man', is harped on throughout. Other key words are: 'co-education of mind and body' ('a far more important thing than the co-education of men and women'); 'skill'; 'the pursuit of excellence'. The various definitions or descriptions of education and its aims as the author envisages it, are difficult to choose from. In one passage (pp. 36-7) he asks us to accept the idea of education—

'... as the great romance, the summary adventure of our age, the central concern of every citizen, life-long in its duration, universal in its scope, addressed throughout to the making of whole men, and having nothing less for its object than to convert the totality of knowledge into human skill, and bring it to bear on the pursuit of excellence in every department of social activity. In this larger conception education becomes, as it now is for the best workers in that profession, a vocation for all that is deepest in philosophy, most daring in idealism, and most resolute in self-devotion. It is only as so transformed, from the academic to the social conception of it, that education can be offered as the equivalent for war—a thing worth dying for and therefore worth living for. . . . I plead, then, for an all-round alliance between education and all that is vital in social activity—with labour in all its occupations, with leisure in all its desires.'

'The final objective of the New Education is the gradual transformation of the industry of the world into the university of the world; in other words, the gradual bringing about of a state of things in which "bread-winning" and "soul-saving" instead of being, as now, disconnected and often opposed, shall become a single and continuous operation.' (pp. 234-5)

'... An ideal system of education, as I conceive it, while doing many other things, would do this first and foremost; it would rouse the passion for excellence in all classes of the community, and let it loose like a mighty flood to do

its work in every department of labour and in every department of leisure. With this passion for excellence at work in a community I would be content to leave all else on the lap of the gods.' (p. 213.)

It would be pleasant to quote further. But you had better read the book. It contains much worth pondering by educationists and perhaps especially by politicians. And I will close with this one more 'final aim' (p. 57):

'To multiply beautiful persons on the face of the earth, to people our native land with them, and to help other lands to people theirs—I give you that as the final aim to which our lesser aims should lead up.'

Chiron, or The Education of a Citizen of the World. By M. Channing Pearce, Headmaster of Alpine College. Kegan Paul. 2s. 6d.

This little book suggests a scheme wherewith to educate boys into citizens of the world. Opening with a careful and not unjust portrait of the public school boy, it argues that this type, admirably suited for the nineteenth century task of ruling and administering, is growing obsolete now that co-operation and sympathy are needed instead. True enough, and well said! And if the schools could be given the right trend, all would be well. Unfortunately, schools are not, like buildings, capable of alteration and adaptation; they are part of society, growing and changing slowly as society's ideals alter.

Next comes a somewhat ill-judged attack on the new educational principles of recent years, ill-judged because the author seriously misunderstands them. 'Individuality', as conceived by the new education, has nothing to do with selfishness, as Mr. Pearce seems to think. The individual will make a better contribution to society if allowed in his youth to develop freely; nor is individual development the negation, rather the confirmation, of discipline. Still less does education, if following the 'natural' development of the child, imply reversion to the primitive, 'nasty, brutish, short'; surely it is the true avenue to his highest possibilities. Lastly, 'creativity' is totally misunderstood. Modern thinkers would like to make a people engaged, at labour or in leisure, on manifold tasks artistic, constructive, happy. The author sees in creativity a 'sport', a deviation from the norm; he thinks in terms of famous eccentric geniuses, and fears to see a world composed of Villons, Benvenuto and Byrons. Needless fear; the truest genius is probably very sane; and the new educationists are aiming at creativity less with the hope of producing masterpieces, than with the intention of making children happy.

Finally the book plans a federal school in Switzerland, where the public school type may learn co-operation with groups of boys of other nationalities. It is an ideal, but somewhat vague. Probably the natural path to the widest loyalties lies through the narrower. Mr. Pearce admits the value of the 'recapitulatory'

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theory. Would that theory not encourage a widening loyalty spreading from 'house' to school, to class, to nation, to continent, and so to mankind? In any case the public school type is English. Will foreigners readily contribute their sons in order to perfect an English type?

Day Schools of England. By Ronald Gurner. Dent & Sons, London. 3s. 6d.

The author states his views of the case for secondary day schools in order to help the parent who is unable for financial reasons to send his boy to a boarding school. He gives many reasons for his belief in day schools, and although some of them seem rather out of date when we see what day school pupils have done, it is perhaps good that they should be stated. After a careful consideration of the two kinds of school he comes to what is surely the real point, viz. that the day school boy 'lives where Nature intended that he should—with his family at home'. Where a day school is available, and where there are not special reasons against it, he shows clearly that the day school is the better. As is the case with many writers on schools, he pays little attention to the primary schools, although there is much to be learned from them in the subject on which he writes. He refers to the formation of parents' associations in many schools and to the tendency for parent visits to schools to increase in numbers, as two useful ways in which the necessary partnership between teacher and parent may be extended in usefulness. The chapters on sex and on the knowledge of the world are useful, and he shows how much the day boy may learn from the outside world and how the virile independence of his mind and body may be developed. His summary is, that in matters of preparation for after-school life the day school need not fear the boarding school, and that the day boy gets from his school and home real definite advantages over the boarding-school boy. If any parent is in doubt about sending his boy to a day school he might with advantage read this book, and when he comes to the figures of school and after-school successes he will decide that the day school is the place for his boy.

Examinations in Public Elementary Schools. An Inquiry undertaken by the A. E. C. and the N. U. T. Education Ltd., 28 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1, and The Schoolmaster Publishing Co., 3 Racquet Court, Fleet Street, London, E.C.4. Cloth 3s. 6d. ; paper 2s. 6d.

Everyone interested in the subject of examinations will remember the controversy which broke out in 1926 when the Association of Education Committees at its annual meeting passed a resolution which appeared to foreshadow a wholesale system for the examination of individual pupils in elementary schools. In 1927, the National Union of Teachers passed a combative resolution obviously intended to express hostility to the proposals of the Association of Education Committees. The result is characteristic of the spirit in which public affairs are managed in

England. A Joint Advisory Committee of the two bodies has sat for two years under the obviously neutral chairmanship of Sir Amherst Selby-Bigge, formerly permanent secretary to the Board of Education. The terms of the Committee's Report are approved by the executive of the N. U. T. and commended to the consideration of all constituents of the A. E. C. The Joint Committee could not, of course, produce the comprehensive philosophical survey advocated by Sir Michael Sadler. For that purpose a two-panel inquiry in a field limited to public elementary schools is inadequate; and many urgent problems still await even the clear enunciation which must precede any effective discussion. The conclusions of the Joint Committee are in the main based on compromise and they are therefore safe rather than arresting. But the report is so lucidly written that its meaning at any rate is clear. In the words of the chairman 'the signatories not only mean what they say but they mean the same thing'. The thirty-six recommendations are the result of exhaustive inquiry and cover a wide field. They are too long even for a summary in a review, but they clearly emphasize—

- (a) the necessity of regular and thorough internal tests for ascertaining and recording the progress of individual pupils in any school;
- (b) the need for both examination and inspection in deciding the quality of instruction in individual schools;
- (c) the danger of the purely external examination of a group of schools conducted at regular intervals for the purpose of testing efficiency;
- (d) the value of occasional large-scale examinations conducted *ad hoc* for the purpose of specific investigation and collection of data for inquiry;
- (e) the unwisdom of attempting to test efficiency and to select the abler pupils by the same examination;
- (f) the need for caution in approaching the problem of leaving examinations in senior and selective central schools.

The machinery for choosing pupils who are to be promoted to secondary or other selective schools receives special consideration. School records or internal examinations are rejected, and a system of examination in English and arithmetic is approved in which the teachers and administrative staff of the education authority co-operate without intervention from more remote quarters. No place is provided for the professional examiner and oral tests are relegated to a very subordinate position which will probably not entirely satisfy the heads of secondary schools. It is worth remarking that both the first recommendation and the last propose the setting up of Joint Committees, one for research in the technique of examining and the other for vigilance in respect of leaving examinations. Would it not be wiser to hand both questions over for about three years to someone like Sir Philip Hartog as a full-time investigator with unlimited terms of reference? Committee research is notoriously inconclusive and vigilance committees are seldom popular.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

'Moral equivalent for War'

This is a thought-provoking definition of education. We are accustoming ourselves to a passive acceptance of the comforting philosophy that sees in education a means, perhaps the only means, of safeguarding world peace. That it may be regarded as a 'moral equivalent for war' disturbs our repose. This viewpoint is taken by Dr. L. P. Jacks in his latest book, *The Education of the Whole Man*,¹ which, as its sub-title states, is a plea for a new spirit in education. Dr. Jacks thinks socialism is destined to fail if it continues to concentrate its attention on the wrong things—on capital, on land, on all the other 'means of production', while ignoring the potentialities of man as a whole being with many sources of usefulness and power other than mere book learning. 'So long as his socialization is neglected, the socialization of all the rest is nothing to the purpose. "Equality of opportunity", "equality of income", "equality" of what you like is compatible with the complete desocialization of human beings, and taken by itself, is more likely to result in *that* than in the opposite. The socialization of *man*—the only socialism worth contending about and infinitely worth contending *for*, is the task of education. To achieve it, education must be delivered from its present bondage to pedantic fetters, and taken up as a social enterprise with the whole strength of society at its back. Short of this nothing can save our civilization from internal disruption and final ruin.' Dr. Jacks is of opinion that if our civilization is to be saved at all, the energy, intelligence, idealism and courage of the entire community must be mobilized in its service. 'Such a mobilization for another purpose was witnessed, not only in this country, but in others both friendly and hostile during the Great War, and proved thereby to be an

achievement possible to modern societies, when the call of necessity demands it. The call of necessity demands it now and the fate of civilization depends on the demand being met, more obviously so, to those who read the signs of the times, than in 1914, when civilization was menaced in another way.'

'Subjects' Alas! this vision is beyond the conception of most of us. To the ma-

jority of teachers academic knowledge is the goal of our schools. Very few as yet question the value of a smattering of different 'subjects' that have little connection with the art of living but that serve to give a varnish of culture—often of snobbery. In all types of school we are content to hand over to our pupils a 'diffusion of knowledge', a 'patchwork of subjects' which, as Dr. Jacks remarks, are mostly 'an inheritance from the vocational needs of gentlemen in ages long past.' Happily, educators are beginning to question the suitability of orthodox curricula.

A New Problem

Secondary education for all is envisaged in most countries, and with it, the raising of the school-leaving age. More and more elementary school children are going on to secondary schools; scholarships and free places are changing the school population and bringing us face to face with new conditions. But a few years ago, the average child attending a secondary school received an important part of its education at home. It was taught to speak well; it had access to good books; it learned social usage. To-day, very many secondary school children have not this cultural background and are dependent on the school to fill it in. The problem now before us is how to fit into the already overcrowded timetable these new non-academic 'subjects'. Some teachers are trying to solve it by arranging out-

¹Reviewed in *The New Era*, May 1931.

of-school activities—clubs, journeys, reading circles. This extra activity falls heavily on teachers, and only the very devoted will sacrifice their hard-earned spare time. While appreciating the sacrifice one questions whether it is altogether wise. Such teachers are apt to become immersed in their work to the exclusion of everything else, often with the result that they fall victims to psychological troubles—to neuroses, repressions, inhibitions.

In America this problem is sometimes solved by the appointment of extra-curriculum teachers. In Detroit, for example, and indeed in most of the large American cities, there are 'Auditorium Teachers'. Every school has an auditorium, and to this each class goes a certain number of times a week. The 'auditorium teacher' uses these times for teaching many different things—accent, through verse-speaking; creative self-expression, through dramatic work; dancing; table manners; even personal cleanliness. When in England we have secondary education for all, we must expect to meet difficulties arising out of class distinctions.

But preparation for more cultural curricula cannot be satisfactorily begun until parents and teachers realize three important facts connected with secondary education: (1) that many children never benefit from academic studies; (2) that there is a danger of standardization; (3) that there is a danger of lowering the average level of academic work. Again, should we have large schools to which all the children of a district may go, or different types of school from which the most suitable can be chosen for any individual? Much can be said for and against both alternatives. The large school has the advantages of better equipment and a more specialized staff; but the disadvantage that it is

difficult to avoid standardization and mechanical teaching. This matter is referred to in 'Focal Points', page 201.

'Co-education of Mind and Body' We now come to an important social question. As long as academic knowledge is considered superior to other kinds of knowledge, parents will strive to give their children an academic education; children unsuited for academic work, in the narrow sense of the term, are thus forced to follow a curriculum unsuited to their capabilities and interests, and much educational effort is wasted. We need to realize that all types of work are equal in and can be raised to definite standards of value. A farmer educated and trained in his own work is as valuable to the community as a doctor; a farm labourer is the equal of a city clerk provided both have had equal educational advantages in their chosen vocations. At a recent educational conference someone was heard to state that children who could not pass Matriculation and the School Leaving Examination had no business in a secondary school! Surely the aim of education is to develop each individual's special aptitudes so that he may, in his own sphere of work, be really skilled, experienced and of use to the community. Only thus can the cultural standard of a nation be raised. Book learning is but a fractional part of education. To concentrate wholly on it is not only to limit education to mere instruction, but also in many cases to limit it to things unrelated to social needs as well as useless to the individual, and therefore wasteful.

We plead with Dr. Jacks for a live education correlated to social needs and activities—a 'co-education of mind and body'.

It is now nearly a year since The New Era became a monthly at the reduced price of 6d. The change was made in response to a demand, and in the hope that a cheaper subscription rate would enable many more parents and teachers to take the magazine. But the trade depression has affected us greatly. Although the new form is appreciated, the circulation has not increased sufficiently to meet the present costs. Either we must double the circulation or we must raise the price. We do not want to raise the price, and if subscribers would help us it would not be necessary. If in the course of the next three months every reader obtained one new subscriber we should be able to keep the price down to 6d.

The Public Schools : An Anachronism

ROGER CLARKE

A Master at a famous Public School

WHAT place have the Public Schools in the new era? They are schools for one single class. They are schools for one single sect. They teach national prejudice: 'Britannia Rules the Waves' is still heard at public-school concerts. They teach sex prejudice: from a staff largely composed of bachelors, they get the impression that women are strange and inferior beings; at most public schools no women are seen from one end of a term to the other, with the exception of maids and matrons—whom boys readily class as inferior—and of sisters, who, appearing as they do in garden-party mood on special occasions, are definitely strange. The Public Schools teach all the exploded ideas and prejudices of the last century. They set instruction higher than education, self-mortification higher than self-expression, success higher than enjoyment. They have no truck with the New Education and yet they are the most famous and most wealthy body of educational establishments in the world.

The aim of the Public Schools has recently been defined¹ by Dr. Norwood, the Headmaster of Harrow, as the inculcation of five ideals: Religion, Discipline, Culture, Athletics and Service. If this be true, it must be remarked that the Public Schools set about it in a peculiar way. 'Religion' involves compulsory attendance at chapel and almost compulsory Confirmation when the boy is sixteen. 'Discipline' is ensured by the Officers' Training Corps, the cane (wielded by senior boys as well as by masters) and an Inquisitorial public opinion. 'Culture' involves the study of Latin grammar in all junior forms. 'Athletics' mean organized games and a much-vaunted code of sportsmanship. (In view of this last point it is not unamusing to note the fact that to make sure of fair decisions at inter-school cricket matches impartial umpires have to be hired from the Marylebone Cricket Club.) 'Service' as an ideal at Public Schools takes the form of boys' clubs in a slum,

which well-dressed parties from the school visit from time to time and from which ragged parties occasionally come to be entertained for an afternoon by the schoolboys.

The Headmaster of Harrow also claims that 'the English tradition of education which holds the field to-day has no longer any fear of art, or music, or even the drama'. It is true that most Public Schools are now sufficiently unafraid of art to appoint an art master—one art master for say five hundred boys—but he is rarely successful; the little boys do good work but the ideals of 'common sense' and 'manliness' which they imbibe seems somehow to make them ashamed, after their first year at school, of any interest in form and colour. Some of the Public Schools—Oundle for instance—attempt a musical education, but most of them treat music as an 'extra', to be administered in the form of choir-practices and piano-lessons. Not one school in ten attempts a school orchestra. Some of the public schools encourage dramatic work, but at the richest of the Anglican schools—Eton—there is no stage and no dramatic society, and at the richest of the Catholic Schools (Downside, Bath) the only attempt at acting is the annual production of an opera by Gilbert and Sullivan.

The cause for this almost sinful conservatism may well lie in the mistaken belief that there is such a thing as a 'Public-School tradition of education' from which no deviation can be made without decadence. Actually the Public School system has evolved from a series of experiments made by men whom its present devotees would call cranks. Colet, who founded St. Paul's, had revolutionary theories about the importance of the pagan poets; Keate ruled Eton on the assumption that the child is spoiled if the rod be spared; Arnold of Rugby believed that for boys to be Christians of the Church of England was the most important thing of all; Thring of Uppingham made a fetish of systematic mark-giving; Almond founded Loretto on the Spartan principle of physical endurance. The Public School System came into being by

¹*The English Tradition of Education*, by Dr. Cyril Norwood.

the incorporation at successive stages of the new theories of education.

It is this faculty of assimilation that has made the Public Schools the most famous body of educational establishments in the world. Yet to-day they are turning a deaf ear to 'the New Education'. Dr. Norwood refers with some

scorn to 'the frequency with which the names of Pestalozzi and Froebel, Herbart and Freud, Montessori and Dalton are bandied to and fro'. It seems that this reliance on a hypothetical tradition, and this refusal to assimilate the idea of the present may well result in the breakdown of the Public School System.

Greek in the New School

JOANNA RAYMONT, B.A. (Oxon.)

MOST people who have learnt Greek at school or even at a university will admit that they have not acquired sufficient ease in reading to turn to their Greek authors purely for the sake of enjoyment. Yet those who have had sufficient linguistic ability and literary sense to reach a certain standard, very seldom look on their study of Greek as a waste of time and a cause for regret, but rather as a great asset, as something which gave them a glimpse into another world. The advantage of learning Greek is a general cultural, rather than a purely literary one.

It is, therefore, of great importance that a classical education should give one as vivid, definite and correct an impression of the whole of Greek culture as possible. It is very doubtful whether this end is best attained by keeping entirely to literary studies, as is virtually the practice in most schools. Certainly, pictorial art will make a more direct appeal, when once the idiom is familiar, and will bridge the gulf of time more effectively than literature, beset as it is with linguistic difficulties. Combined with a use of translations, the study of Greek vases and sculpture would give an insight into Greek culture far deeper than that to be gained from reading in the original alone; and would have the further advantage of being open to modification for children who have no particular gift for languages and who do not intend to specialize in classics or even in any literary subject. There are numbers of such people who regret their total ignorance of Greek when it is too late, it being out of their power to give the necessary time and concentration.

But there are other very cogent reasons for broadening the basis of Greek studies. In the

development of any individual or nation the problem is always to keep the balance between the masculine and feminine, or Apollinic and Dionysiac spiritual principles. The Apollinic principle is intellectual, reduces the multifariousness of ideas and things to order and unity, and seeks only the known. The Dionysiac principle is emotional, mystical, illogical; it seeks always the unknown and unknowable.

In Greece, no less, there was this struggle to attain balance; variation, mingling and separation of the two elements at different stages in her cultural development, one seeking respite from the other. But Apollo was finally on the ascendant, and the ancient man was on the whole Apollinic, turning to Dionysus for outlet, as opposed to modern man, who is Dionysiac and appeals for stability to Apollo. But in Greek culture, the *balance* between the two elements was more perfect than in any other. Ricarda Huch, in her work on Romanticism, after distinguishing between these two elements, says: *Allerdings lebten die Griechen, wie wenn uns ein Vorbild gesetzt sein sollte, nach dem wir strebend uns zu richten hätten; hier herrscht eine innere Uebereinstimmung wie die zwischen 'Odipus and Antizone'*. This *Uebereinstimmung* was not only national but individual, and it may be this that accounts for the universality of homosexual love among the Greeks; the balance of the masculine and feminine elements in the individual soul was so perfect, that the complementary love of man and woman was not needed, for perfect spiritual unity could be attained by two individuals of the same sex.

Is it not as an example of this balance that Greek culture is of special value to us? The more so, of course, on account of its prevailing

Apollinic tendency.

The usual method of studying Greek tends to emphasize exclusively the Apollinic character of Greek culture—its clearness and reason, order and symmetry, restraint and moderation, its finiteness. One reads Sophocles and Thucydides, never the lyric poets, and if one reads Euripides, the 'Bacchæ' is treated as a strange exception. But as Jane Harrison in her *Themis* says: 'Euripides, the mystic, could not wholly love Apollo, who stood for light and truth and clear reason and symmetry, and the order of the heavenly bodies and all the supposed Greek virtues. He knew of a God whose rites and whose beauty were of darkness; when Pentheus asks Dionysus:

"How is thy worship held, by night or day?" the god makes answer:

"Most often night; 'tis a majestic thing,
The darkness".

This longing for the dark and mysterious is, in fact, inherent in the Greek character. It was prevalent in the earlier centuries of Greek history, and was only superficially suppressed in the classical period, when it was still ministered to in the Orphic mysteries, and in the worship of the Heroes and Dionysus and all the Under-world deities. It is rarely shown in the literature and art of the classical period, when Apollo had gained his final victory, but comes to light in the poets of the seventh and sixth centuries, in the magical hymns to Dionysus and Hekate, and in certain vase-pictures. If it were more emphasized and better understood in teaching Greek to children, Greek culture would be felt more akin to our own and would become more vital. For in childhood and adolescence the Dionysiac and emotional principle is always predominant; and, moreover, is not the sixth century, the pre-classical, pre-Apollinic century, the childhood of Greece? In all the art of that time there is manifested a brave youthfulness, a confidence and gaiety which was only quenched by the solemnity and consciousness of a great destiny brought about by the long trial of the Persian Wars.

In schools of the conventional type, the only accompaniment to a study of Greek literature is a vague effort known as 'Antiquities'—usually

taken in so scanty a manner as to be quite uninteresting—and military history. A thorough study of Greek art, religion, ethnology and social life, with a free use of museum exhibits and photographs would not only vastly increase the enjoyability of Greek studies, but would also serve to bring Dionysus into his proper relationship to Apollo. It would give much scope for individual work and enterprise; an illustrative museum might be formed without great outlay, the children themselves helping in the selection of casts and photographs, and making drawings and models. Visits to public museums would then have an immediate practical purpose, and would lose that aimlessness which so often robs them of their value.

Such methods have yet to be worked out in detail by experienced teachers; I am only able to put forward what I hope will prove a suggestive point of view, and one which will encourage the inclusion of Greek among the subjects studied in schools of a progressive kind.

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Home and School Relations

ADA HART ARLITT

*Professor and Head of the Department of Child Care and Training, University of Cincinnati, Ohio
author of 'Psychology of Infancy and Early Childhood', and 'The Child from One to Six'*

THE present-day interest in parent education in Parent Teacher Associations has brought into clear relief the whole problem of the relation between home and school in the education of children. That this relation should be a close one can be demonstrated from many angles. According to such statistics as we have, the child spends not more than one-tenth of his time in school. The rest of his time is under the direction and guidance of home influences. We have long known that the greatest transfer of material exists when the relations between two situations have been clearly pointed out. We have long known that no transfer takes place until similarities have been shown. It is perfectly possible to teach students economics and have them ignorant of the economic conditions of the country. It is perfectly possible to teach the physiology of the nervous system and the anatomy of the nervous system as such separate units that the student makes no transfer from one class to the other. One may to an equal degree teach in school much valuable material and many good habits which transfer little if at all to the home life of children, and the home's great contribution to the training of children will transfer very little to the school situation. Until there is close co-operation between home and school, we shall go on teaching home habits at home and school habits in school with a limited transfer from each to the other, though the habits learned in each must function fully in the other if the child is to have consistent, well-rounded and balanced living.

The necessity for such transfer is far from being the only reason for emphasis on home and school relations. Exactly the same qualifications which make a parent a good parent make a teacher a good teacher. A few illustrations will serve to prove this assertion. The wise parent has been aware for many years that there are certain principles of discipline to which one must adhere; for example, that the discipline shall be consistent. One cannot be partial nor

can one change one's mind, administer discipline to-day and forget to discipline for the same act to-morrow. One must have clearly defined policies based on thoughtful consideration and one's directions to children must be based on these clearly thought out policies.

A principal in a large elementary school was disturbed by the noise and lack of discipline in the room of one of his new teachers. On going into the room, he found that the teacher was giving her commands in so hesitant a way as to impress the children with the fact that she feared that these commands would not be carried out. To this young teacher the principal said: 'You are in the same situation as are young parents. If you are not sure the child will carry out the directions which you are giving to him, you must readjust your attitude. Be sure that the directions that are being given are adequate and are based on sound reasoning. Then when you give them, remember that I am back of you, the School Board is back of you, the Police and Fire Departments will support you, and every right-thinking citizen will give you his firm backing. If you give your directions with that attitude, the children will not fail to give you co-operation and obedience.' In a very few days the disciplinary problems in that room had disappeared. The principal had only made clear to the teacher what every adult-minded parent knows, that the child will question those things of which one is one's self uncertain. Illustrations of this point might be multiplied indefinitely.

One may say to the teacher as to the parent: 'If a child does something which you do not wish to have him do, look for the cause. Punishment alone may not stop it. The child may be reacting because he is the centre of attention and the cause of excitement—a great reward. He may be in a situation where he cannot help behaving badly. He may have no other outlet for this drive.' One may indicate to the teacher as to the parent that there is always a cause for unde-

sirable behaviour and that it is necessary to find the cause before the behaviour can be changed constructively.

It has been said of many teachers that until they do learn the general principles of child behaviour from the parents' point of view, when crises arise in the schoolroom they meet them in the same manner as similar crises were met in their own homes when they as children were naughty. Since their childhood dates back a number of years and much has been learned of children's behaviour and parents' attitudes since that date, the possibilities are that the methods employed by those parents who have had parent education contacts are somewhat wiser than those employed by these teachers on the sheer basis of their own, sometimes not too educated, experience. The parents' use of one type of method and the teacher's use of an entirely different one produces conflict between home and school relations which could easily be avoided were these relations close enough to have both parents and teachers combine to study the more successful methods of child rearing and care.

From the sheer point of view of the ease with which the child learns, the school may gain some lessons from earlier forms of education which were given in the home. Children learn best and retain longest those things in which they are interested. In fact, unless children are interested, they may be learning material quite different from that which is being presented by the teacher. Some time ago in an experiment with children in a nursery school, this fact was brought out clearly. The children in the school were being measured for the speed and accuracy with which they learned to throw beads into a basket. They were interested in throwing a number of beads. They were not interested in any particular degree of accuracy. They learned to throw beads rapidly, but the accuracy with which they threw them increased not at all. They mastered only that part of the situation in which their interest had been aroused.

Similar situations may be found with older children. It sometimes happens that a college class, taking a required subject in which they are not interested, find at the end of the semester that they have acquired to a high degree the ability to have words come in

through the ear and go out through the point of the pencil, leaving the least possible trace of their passing. So much is this so that the student will read the notes taken with great accuracy in class and marvel at what has gone on outside the range of his attention. He has acquired the rather useless habit of taking notes without listening and has learned practically nothing of the subject matter itself.

An elementary school child may develop to perfection his capacity to day dream while the lesson proceeds and to come back from these dreams at just the proper moment to make somewhat adequate answers to the teacher's questions. None of these habits are the objectives of the educational programme of which he is a part, but they are the habits which he acquires.

Not only is it true that one may acquire material quite different from that which is presented in class, but it is an equally well-known fact that one forgets what one does not wish to remember. If the class is uninterested and the attitude of the instructor such as to produce mild antagonism, the material is forgotten in the briefest possible time. Every one has had the experience of forgetting the names of people whom he disliked, of forgetting to keep an appointment which he did not wish to keep, and of forgetting the subject matter in a course which aroused his dislike and antagonism. Children are no exceptions to the general rule of human behaviour. Were the home and school relations close and the school material tied up with the home and with other life activities, the child would learn and retain more in actual content, and would know far more about living.

Much that can be considered drudgery at the present time might fail to be considered drudgery under these circumstances. No one hears complaints of the drudgery through which the young page passed in his education to become a squire, and yet much of what he did the modern child would regard as intolerable. Such lessons as those which had to do with keeping clean the pots and pans with which his master was served, cleaning armour, sharpening weapons, taking account of the stock in the rooms in which armour was kept, and waiting on his knight at table, besides cooking in the field and a few other odd jobs, could hardly have been considered

with delight unless the child knew their connection with actual living and their connection with the life he was to enter as an adult.

Education is to-day's great adventure. The actual countries which may be explored have diminished rapidly, but explorations in the field of knowledge have increased in greater proportion than unexplored areas have diminished. The child to whom learning is an adventure has before him an ever-widening land to explore. On the other hand, the child whose education fails to establish this attitude because it is too far removed from home life must somewhere along the line find escapes to make life more interesting. The form which these escapes will take will depend largely on the individual's make-up and on his background and training, but some escapes of some sort will be found. The child to whom learning is an ever-increasing source of adventure needs few escapes, for life is itself so interesting and vital, so full of adventures, that his interest in daily living is too great to need to rush away from it.

The school needs to know about the home from the point of view of shortening its own labour. A single illustration will serve to prove this statement. The head of a large school, standing on the playground one day, said: 'There comes the fifth one of the "NO" family. Each child from that family has had to be trained out of a set habit of obstinacy before he could adjust to the school. On each one we have spent two years at a minimum in developing adequate school attitudes before learning could go on easily, and here comes the fifth.' He was asked: 'Did you ever look into that home to find out what had produced children with the "NO" attitudes? Did you ever try to gain the co-operation of that home in helping to overcome it?' The head replied: 'I never thought of that.' Such instances may be rare, since an

extreme illustration was chosen in order to make the point clear, but instances where closer home co-operation would have obviated attitudes which stood in the way of learning are all too common. In practically all cases, more co-operation between home and school and more knowledge of home backgrounds would aid materially in the solution of the problems which these attitudes present.

The school has a responsibility to the parent of giving that parent understanding of the methods and the materials which are being presented to his child. Every year there are a number of women who come to the consultation centre in one large city about four months after the opening of school. They have come in to complain that the school method of teaching reading is ruining their children. They have asked them to spell certain words and the children cannot yet spell. They have asked them to pick out the letters of the alphabet and the children do not know these letters. Both they and their children are convinced that they are being taught so poorly that they will never learn. A very little explanation of the whole thought-method of teaching reading, and of the effects which it may be expected to have would go far toward restoring confidence to both parents and children. If it is given early enough, such an explanation will mean that the confidence is never lost.

Only a few points have been discussed in this large field of home and school relations, since to treat it fully would be to treat all phases of child life. Progressive education stresses the integration of experience. It stresses also education for life. What, then, could it stress as more important than the integration of home and school experience through an increasing integration of home and school?

CALDECOTT COMMUNITY AT HOME, Sunday, 21st June,
3.30 to 7 o'clock. R.S.V.P. to Secretary, Caldecott House, Goff's
Oak, Cheshunt, Herts. Nearest Station, Cuffley, 2 miles (car to
meet train, 2/-), or Skylark Bus from Oxford Circus to Cheshunt
Cross Roads, 1½ mile. Tea 6d.

The Mental Health of the Pre-school Child

MARGARET DRUMMOND, M.A., F.E.I.S.

Vice-chairman of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain; Lecturer, Education Department, Edinburgh University; author of 'The Dawn of Mind', 'Five Years Old or Thereabouts', 'The Psychology and Teaching of Number', etc.

A GOOD start in life is what we desire for all our children, and we are told by our medical authorities that the vast majority of babies are well born. So far as the eye of science can perceive, their little bodies have within them the potentiality of healthy manhood or womanhood. Yet we know that before five years have passed, not only will many have rendered back their life to the power that gave it, but many more will have been injured physically and mentally, so that their early promise becomes a dream that will never come true. During the last twenty years, statistics have been accumulated substantiating these statements, and rendering ever more insistent the question: What is to be done?

Curative and remedial treatment has been increasingly provided, but more economical in every way would be preventive treatment, if we could only secure it. Perfectly healthy growth during the first five years is an asset of incalculable value both to the individual and to the community. And this is probably even more true of mental than of physical growth. The researches of the psycho-analysts have convinced us that the seeds of mental breakdown are sown in the very early years, and that if these could be safeguarded, not only would human efficiency and happiness be greatly increased, but also the doors of our mental hospitals would not need to open so wide or so often for adult patients.

About the education of their children our forefathers had no such doubts or questionings as we have. They were upheld by certain universally accepted aphorisms, such as, 'Children should be seen and not heard', or 'Spare the rod, and spoil the child'. Not for one moment did they doubt that it was their duty 'to whip the offending Adam out of him'. Not for one moment did the modern concept of individuality enter their minds to restrain them from attempting to force the personality of the child into the prepared mould of their fancy.

A little girl was once asked her name. 'Dorothy Dont', came the prompt reply. So accustomed was she to the junction of these sounds that she could not say one without the other. This repressive and negative discipline probably did little harm when the children in house or garden had their own retreats where they could lead their hidden lives unmolested by adult interference. In these days between children and adults there was a great gulf fixed. To the children the adults were Olympians, with unlimited opportunities, but apparently no desire to take advantage of them; to the adults the children were beings, noisy, troublesome, and immature, simply putting in time until they should become grown up. In these circumstances much was left undone that might have helped towards healthy growth. On the other hand, unless in a house where moral and religious questions were too early forced upon the child's attention, the processes of mental development, for the most part, proceeded in accordance with nature and with no undue strain.

The new outlook in biology which dominated the latter half of the nineteenth century caused scientific men to look with eager interest at the child. Darwin published his notes on the development of his infant son; others followed his lead, and a host of facts derived from careful and informed observation began to accumulate. In our own day J. B. Watson and Arnold Gesell have adapted laboratory methods to the study of the human infant, and are throwing light on the vexed question of how much the individual owes to heredity, how much to environment.

It has long been admitted that the concept of instinct is applicable to the human being as well as to the lower animals. William James listed a long series of human instincts, and William McDougall accepted a great many of them. Now, as a result of his laboratory studies, J. B. Watson says roundly there are no instincts; all forms of behaviour are built in by the parent



This is the Way we Wash our Hands

[*St. Saviour's Child Garden, Edinburgh*]



On Holiday at the Children's Village, Humble

[*St. Saviour's Child Garden, Edinburgh*]

and by the environment provided by the parent.

In order to understand how this can be, it is necessary to know something of the pioneer work of the great Russian physiologist, Pavlov, on conditioned reflexes. Pavlov selected the salivary reflex in dogs as the subject of his study. He devised a means of measuring the secretion of saliva which took place when the animal was fed. He then set himself the problem of finding out whether it was possible to obtain this same response to any other stimulus, for example, the showing of a light or the sounding of a note. He found that by bringing the new stimulus to play upon the animal in conjunction with the old one he could, in time, get a flow of saliva in response to the new stimulus applied by itself. He had thus manufactured a new reflex, which he termed a conditioned reflex. He had stamped a new behaviour pattern upon the nervous system of the dog.

In the light of these experiments, is it not possible that much of the behaviour of young children is determined by accidental associations of stimuli completely analogous to those associations intentionally produced in the laboratory?

Why not try? Professor Watson found that a sudden sharp sound produced signs of fear in infants: this seems to be an inborn or instinctive response. With this stimulus he associated the sight of a toy rabbit, which in itself did not give rise to any fear reactions. Conditioned by its associate, in a very short time the rabbit alone called forth signs of fear.

In the course of his laboratory experiments Watson could discover only two stimuli which were direct producers of symptoms of fear. These were sudden noise, and withdrawal of support. The so-called nervous baby is very often hyper-sensitive to sound. To him the world is full of fear-producing noises. Now, anything which happens along with any of those noises may by virtue of this association become itself a cause of fear. Hence numbers of unreasonable and unaccountable fears—fears apparently of spontaneous growth because our observation of the child is never sufficiently constant or detailed to detect the moment when the fatal association is made—spring up within the child, and he loses the poise and joyous

acceptance of experience which are the marks of mental health.

It will be seen then that practical hygiene demands that during the early years the child's environment should be as free as possible from startling sounds. This does not mean that all sound should be hushed even when the child is asleep. It should be taken for granted that to ordinary household noises he can habituate himself, and in his presence no reference should ever be made to noise as a disturbing factor. The care and protection given to a child in this matter as in other matters should be care and protection of which he is quite unconscious. Any anxiety sensed by the child will act as a definitely unfavourable environmental factor.

It is of course possible that, as the nervous system matures, stimuli which leave the baby unaffected may produce spontaneous fear in the older child. Thus certain laboratory workers have found that unexpected and sudden events may produce fear; for example a child on quite friendly terms with frogs may develop a fear of them if one suddenly jumps as he touches it. It is well, then, as far as possible, to prepare the child for what is coming. For example, on a railway journey, do not let a tunnel take him by surprise, or he may develop a fear of the dark which will be hard to eradicate. Let your voice and your hand be ready to give him that feeling of security of which the sudden descent of the dark might deprive him.

Fear, anger, and jealousy are all passions which may be experienced in the very early years, but in the interest of the child's future such experience should be avoided as far as may be. In his natural expression of the dynamic forces within him the child should not be thwarted, though for his own safety he must sometimes be guided. To allow the thwarting of some desire to give rise to cries of anger and then to gratify the desire, is to teach the lesson that anger is an effective weapon. Temper tantrums are the natural result of bad training. So also is jealousy. If a child's special privileges are to be affected, as by the arrival in this world of a little brother or sister, common sense should teach us that it is necessary to prepare beforehand a nest for the newcomer in the affections of each member of the family. Moreover, while the baby is settling into its place, care should be taken that

nothing he values is arbitrarily snatched from the ex-baby. Again, visitors must be watched, for with criminal irresponsibility they are quite likely to sow seeds of jealousy in the mind of the two-year-old.

Most people nowadays know something of the evils of 'repression'. But by those who know only a little psychology the meaning of the word is often not fully understood. A repressive discipline, which prevents the child exercising his powers freely, is bad, but it may not seriously impair mental health. The repression which is dangerous is that which takes place within the child, and arises from a sense of guilt. The guilty knowledge or the guilty act is repressed into the unconscious; inner conflict arises, and this may possibly, if the chances of life favour its development, culminate in mental breakdown at adolescence or some later period.

Now, as Froebel clearly saw, it is the adult that forces guilt upon the child. Our shocked attitude, our emotional treatment of the incident, transforms his innocence into sin. We have acted the part of the serpent and have tempted the child to eat of the fruit of the tree of knowledge of good and evil, of which it is not safe

for him to eat. It is our duty to train him patiently, unemotionally, in *habits* of right action; it is very definitely not our duty to shorten his stay in the garden of Eden by thrusting upon him *knowledge* unsuited to his years.

Very important for the child's mental health is his happiness. 'There is no duty', says R. L. Stevenson, 'that we so much under-rate as the duty of being happy'. Lack of harmony between father and mother, quarrels among members of the household, react unfavourably even on the youngest member. Careful training in orderly ways, in consideration for others, in care of toys, will conduce to happiness and stability. The environment must respond to the growing needs of the child's intellect, but neither intellectually nor emotionally should any strain be put upon him. Probably the best and safest environment for every little child is that of the nursery school, where there is a guardian wise in the ways of childhood, a society of equals to give practice in the game of social life, plants and animals to give promise of the beauty of the world, books, toys and other apparatus to foster the growth of mind and spirit.

Co-Education in Norway

A RETROGRESSION

[Certain information with regard to Co-education in Europe came to hand too late for publication in the May issue of 'The New Era'. The following account, received from the Minister of Education in Norway, is of considerable interest, revealing as it does a tendency that is contrary to current opinion in this country. But it is based on experience.]

'Co-education in Norway is in a position quite different from what it is in any other European country. It has been the prevailing system during a whole generation. Its advantages and its drawbacks have been tested by practice. And the latter seem to have gradually caught an increasing attention. The opinion is now growing that the psychological, as well as the physiological, basis of co-education is at least very questionable. Among pedagogues and perhaps still more among medical men, to say nothing of the parents, there seems to be a feeling that co-education is inadequate, and may be dangerous, especially as regards adolescence. And so it happens that, while in other countries where the system has not yet been put to the test, pedagogical reformers

generally go in for co-education as an idea of the future, it is in this country first of all on the part of the radical wing of pedagogy and medicine that the opposition against the system has been raised.

'It may be mentioned that a Parliamentary Commission in 1927 brought forward a revised scheme for secondary schools which leaves it to the local authorities to decide either for co-education or separate education in their secondary schools, with equal rights for either system as to public acknowledgment and pecuniary grants. At present the scheme is being considered by the Educational Department of the Government, which will probably before long decide whether to bring in a bill to the effect, or no.'

An Unusual Boarding School

The Caldecott Community, Goff's Oak, Hertfordshire

EVELYN SHARP

Author and journalist; author of 'The London Child', 'The Child Grows Up', 'Hertha Ayrton', 'Here We Go Round', etc.

THE Caldecott Community is unusual in more than one respect. It is a boarding school for the children of working-class parents, and, unlike other boarding schools for similar children, is neither a penal nor a charitable institution. It began in 1911 as one of the earliest Nursery Schools, situated in a very poor district of St. Pancras. In 1917, realizing that in such surroundings it was impossible to carry out their ideas, the two founders who are its present Directors, Miss Rendel and Miss Potter, turned it into a boarding school for children of the same class between the ages of two-and-a-half and fifteen years, and moved first to Charlton Court in Kent, and finally in 1924 to the present house at Goff's Oak, near Cheshunt.

Their aim is to give these boys and girls, who are all normal children, though from homes in which conditions are not favourable to the home life every child ought to have, as good a school career as is available for the children of wealthier parents, keeping the same terms and holidays, and allowing the parents the same freedom to visit and remove their children. Every parent is required to pay or to raise a minimum of ten shillings a week towards the school fees; some pay more, and the provision of the deficit is left to members of the public who think the experiment worth supporting. An important feature of the scheme is the close relationship between teachers, children and parents; there is a parents' day every term, and by going home for the holidays the boys and girls never lose touch with their own circle, while the standard of taste implanted in them at school, being based on simplicity and truth, is entirely in keeping with a future life in which there will be periods of leisure as well as work.

Since, on leaving Goff's Oak, the Caldecott children go into industry and not to a public school, the curriculum is blessedly free from the domination of the Common Entrance Examination. A kind of modified Dalton method is

employed in the teaching of ordinary class subjects; the pupils above the nursery age are divided into age groups and work individually for the greater part of the morning, with an occasional class lesson; every evening after tea there is also one of the group lessons. The tutorial method is as successful here as I have found it elsewhere.

'To see the different rates of progress among these children is an eye-opener as to the probable effects of an ordinary method upon them', observed the teacher I found presiding over a group of seventeen boys and girls between the ages of nine and twelve. At the same time, this mistress, who had had previous experience of teaching in an ordinary elementary school, allowed no advantage to be taken of the freedom permitted here. I noticed that a dart, which threatened to disturb study in the vicinity of one youngster, was tactfully but surely abstracted by her, and she as evidently knew how to discriminate between the individual student who sought real information and the wily philanderer who regarded excursions from her own desk to that of the mistress as interludes in a dull life of toil.

The feature that distinguishes the Caldecott Community especially from the ordinary boarding school is the prominence given to arts and crafts. 'What we stand for educationally is culture', said one of the Directors. 'We try to cultivate the children's taste in music, art, clothes, house decoration, by letting them come in contact naturally with these things in a beautiful form, rather than by definite teaching about them, just as we encourage them to cultivate their minds by reading as many books as possible—there is a compulsory reading hour every evening—with the understanding that they keep a list of the books they claim to have read, so that we may call upon them at any moment to describe them.' Perhaps the best evidence that could be produced of the cultural

results of the Caldecott system is to be found in their remarkable play productions, notably their performance of 'The Son of Jochebed', a year ago, which attracted considerable public notice, especially from actors and dramatic critics.

Beginning with the babies, who play in the Nursery on Montessori lines, though they are not limited to the use of Montessori apparatus, the whole school learns unconsciously to combine intellectual and manual skill. The actual work of the house, except the cooking, is done entirely by the children and the staff, working on Saturday mornings and for an hour after breakfast daily. The garden and small farm are similarly used as a pleasant means of imparting practical knowledge; and the pride with which a little girl of seven showed me round the latter, explaining the idiosyncracies of chickens, cows and 'the horse that lives here when he isn't out', was a proof that in her case at all events familiarity had not bred contempt for these

entrancing accompaniments of country life. And in addition to all such necessary tasks, there is a great deal of excellent, often extremely talented work accomplished in painting, modelling, and crafts of various kinds.

Two questions occur to one's mind in connection with an original educational enterprise of this kind: (1) what is the general effect upon the character and development of the children; and (2) how does it fit them for the life they have to lead after leaving school? The Directors, who possess the first qualification of the experimentalist in refusing to be dogmatic as yet about results, were very frank on both subjects.

'Our weak point', said one of them, 'is the present size of the school. Forty-five is a bad number, too big for a family and not big enough for a community. What we aim at is to have small groups within a larger one, so that at certain times—in games, for instance—every child's personality gets a chance of being ab-



Caldecott House, from the Lake

sorbed in other people's. Otherwise it is so easy for children to become sticky little individualists, especially girls, who seem to find it more difficult at first than boys to use their unaccustomed freedom. It doesn't matter in the case of the little ones, because you have to be an individualist before you can learn to be a member of a group; but we do wish we could give those of eleven and upwards more companions of their own age. All we can do, until funds allow us to move into a larger house, is to make arrangements for the boys to play games with a preparatory school near by. But I must admit,

she added, 'this drawback, if it is one, does not seem to prejudice their after careers.'

Against this self-criticism must be set the opinion of the teacher already mentioned, who made an interesting comparison between her present pupils and those she had taught in the elementary school. 'What strikes me about these children', she said, 'is their concentration and intelligence when I give them a new lesson. Also their independence and resource—you can always trust them to go on an errand, because if things don't turn out exactly as they were led to expect, they will think for themselves and



Making Stage Properties

[Caldecott Community

generally do the right thing.' If this is really true, thought the visitor, here at last have I found real education!

As in other 'free' schools, there are few punishments, and discipline is a natural growth. Isolation is found to be an excellent corrective of minor offences. Only very rarely indeed is a boy—never a girl—caned on the hands for some deliberate and repeated lawlessness, such as breaking out of bounds; but Miss Rendel agrees with the Headmaster quoted in my former article [see April number of *The New Era*] that this punishment should be a last resort and always imposed immediately after the offence is committed. She disagrees otherwise with the same educationist, however, who reserves such punishment for very severe offences like cruelty. Here, she considers, punishment is useless and may be even bad. In such serious cases she finds that the impulse dies away if not made too much of; if this does not happen, and the motive cannot be discovered and removed, a psychologist is consulted.

Self-government, which was practised when I last visited Caldecott House some years ago, has been abandoned, the children being too young, in the Directors' opinion, to sit in judgment on one another. 'We give them heaps of responsibility in making them supervise dormitories, the chapel, the farm animals, and so on, but not power over humans,' they say; 'though, if we had girls and boys of sixteen and upwards, we should certainly allow them self-government.'

The after careers of the Caldecott children call for some comment because as I have said, in their case they leave school in order to earn their living and not as a prelude to further education. The Directors make a point of not allowing them to go into the labour market before the age of fifteen, and only then if they are trained for their job. At the age of eleven they begin to think of their future career and to work towards it, and they leave school as soon after that as a course of training can be arranged for them. A typical case is that of a present pupil who shows talent for building, and is going to start his two years' course in a Polytechnic Junior Building School at the age of

thirteen and a half. Another boy, of quiet average ability, won a bursary at Owens School, Islington, matriculated, is now a clerk earning £2 10s. a week, and is studying accountancy—an ordinary career enough, but he takes his 'girl' to Promenade Concerts and the Old Vic as an old Caldecott boy should!

For the girls free places are often found in secondary schools, while many train as hospital or nursery nurses and other occupations. A brilliant case is that of a girl who started in the Community at the age of three, and is now about to take her finals as a doctor of medicine; but sounder evidence of all-round achievement is to be seen in the general happiness of the young people who revisit their school at the annual Reunion. 'With two exceptions, not one of our children has yet joined the unemployed,' you are told, and the two failures, a talented boy who contracted a mental disease in his late teens, and a girl who was really a delinquent and should not have been sent to a normal school at all, scarcely count.

'She was not good at books, but extraordinarily good at life', observed one of the Directors, referring to a pupil who has found her vocation as a travelling nurse. The remark seemed to me typical of the human understanding that helps to make the Caldecott Community such an interesting educational experiment, because it showed that those who run it do not, like some educational enthusiasts, lose their hold upon the everyday existence that after all awaits every boy and girl, rich or poor, at the end of the school career.

THE JULY ISSUE
WILL BE A SPECIAL NUMBER
ON
GEOGRAPHY IN THE NEW
CURRICULUM

Choosing a Career—II

ALEC RODGER, B.A.

of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology, London

In the May issue of 'The New Era', Mr. Rodger gave a brief account of the first part of the Institute's vocational guidance examination. This month he continues with a discussion of the remainder of the examination and of the formulation of the conclusions and recommendations. Those who may wish to make themselves further acquainted with the technique employed should consult a book which will shortly be published by Harrap's, London. It has been written by members of the Institute's staff, and will be called 'Methods of Choosing a Career'

THE judgment of an individual's temperamental characteristics—using the word 'temperament' in a very wide sense—is a notoriously difficult matter. The problem is aggravated as far as the Institute is concerned by the fact that the majority of the boys and girls who come to seek its advice have recently reached one of the most important stages of their emotional development, and frequently they exhibit to an almost bewildering extent the many strains and stresses of the adolescent period.

But close observation and tactful questioning are of tremendous value. Few tests of temperamental traits are worth the time they take to give. America has produced an abundance of them, but the Institute has decided that they have not given sufficient indication of their usefulness to warrant their inclusion in its examinations. Recently, a member of its staff has devised a test which has already been found to be of some considerable value in the diagnosis of different temperamental types, and this is usually included, but in general it may be said that the summing-up of qualities of temperament and character—sociability, cheerfulness, perseverance, co-operativeness, obstinacy, self-confidence, reliability, and the like—is dependent upon information gathered from the boy, from the parents, from the school, and upon detailed observation of his demeanour during the examination. Even a handshake is not without its significance. A business man was recently reported to have declared that he could distinguish a large number of different handshakes, and that to each of them there corresponded a different type of individual. Such a statement was, of course, extremely rash; but there is a

grain of truth in his claim, and the degree of 'flabbiness' of a person's handshake is not infrequently found to be a fair indication of his 'flabbiness' of character. But an infinitely more important indication of a boy's temperamental qualities is given by his method of approach to the various tests. Carefulness, patience, perseverance, general 'thoroughness', and their opposites, must be looked for and gauged. A device known as a 'rating-scale' is commonly used for this purpose.

An interview with the boy forms the final part of the examination. In it his school and home records are discussed and his interests and opinions sounded. Its importance cannot be over-emphasized, and, since the three hours allowed for the entire examination is all too short, a definite plan is followed. It is essential that every fact which may have some important bearing on the vocational decisions should be made available for the examiner's consideration.

A talk with the parent is also desirable, for frequently there may be factors which, though unknown to the boy, are bound to influence his future. The most important of these are usually finance and health. It is obviously useless to recommend that a boy should have a university training if his parents will in all probability be unable to afford it. Again, disorders of health are often of paramount importance. For example, some families show a tendency to hæmophilia, or 'bleeding', and it is undesirable that a boy who comes of such a family should enter upon a career in an occupation in which the chances of bodily injury are great. It is not usually necessary for the examinee to have a thorough medical examination before he comes to the Institute, but occasionally the vocational

recommendations have to be made subject to a medical practitioner's approval.

It can readily be seen, then, that the number and complexity of the factors involved necessitate intensive inquiry into all the conditions of the case, or, at least, into as many of them as are available for investigation.

The last step of all is the making of the recommendations, and reference to this forces us to ask a question. Even if we have judged with fair accuracy (by means of tests and by observation) a boy's intellectual capacities and temperamental traits, and even if we have knowledge of the other subsidiary, but nevertheless important factors, involved, how do we know that he is fitted for one occupation rather than for another? And the answer is, By means of what is called 'Occupation Analysis'.

The vocational psychologist has to make it part of his business to find out what abilities are necessary for success in various occupations. He must know what degree of general intelligence is necessary in order that the examinations—if there are any—may be tackled successfully. He must know what special abilities—if any—are required. He must know what temperamental qualities—sociability, carefulness, perseverance, and so on—are desirable. He must know what examinations must be passed. He must know, roughly, how much the training for various occupations may cost, and how long it lasts.

His recommendations are the results of the 'fitting-in' of his knowledge of the boy's abilities with his knowledge of the requirements of different occupations. It is, in fact, in the determination of the relationship between an individual's abilities—intellectual and temperamental—and the abilities necessary for success in different occupations that vocational psychology consists.

Let me give an illustration. A. B., a boy of 18, came to the Institute for vocational guidance. He had had an elementary school education, and on completing it had become a junior clerk. He complained that the work was dull and that his prospects were poor. His salary was thirty shillings a week. His sister was a successful journalist, and he thought he would like to

follow her example. It was found that his intelligence, judged by secondary school standards, was distinctly below average. He had fair mechanical ability, but in a test of literary expression his work was very indifferent. Temperamentally, he was an extremely pleasant, sociable, and co-operative sort of boy. He was not pushful, but he seemed to be well-balanced and persevering. In short, his strong points were temperamental rather than intellectual. He seemed to be eminently fitted for work among people. From this point of view a clerical occupation was not ideal; moreover, his abilities were not of an academic kind, and his prospects in clerical work in competition with boys of greater ability were not good. Journalism also seemed to be unsuitable because of his rather low score in the intelligence tests and because of his lack of literary facility. Nor did it appear to be suitable on temperamental grounds, since he lacked forcefulness. He was recommended to try salesmanship, preferably in a retail store. The idea had not occurred to him before, and he did not at first find it attractive. Nevertheless, he followed the advice and became a salesman in a West End shop. Within two years of his visit to the Institute he was earning five pounds a week and was very satisfied with his prospects.

It is not claimed, of course, that the technique is faultless. No one is more aware of its limitations than the vocational psychologist himself. But it is claimed that it is a very much more reliable method of dealing with the problem of the choice of a career than any of the other and older ones. There is still room for great improvement in it, but even in its present form it has proved its worth. A recent 'follow-up' of a number of the Institute's earliest cases showed that, of those who had acted upon the advice given, over 80 per cent were satisfied with their position and prospects; of those who had rejected it and had followed their own inclinations, less than 40 per cent were satisfied.

Until knowledge of the Institute's existence and aims becomes more widespread, however, progress must be slow. If parents and educationists will interest themselves and others in the work, they will assist us greatly. Close co-operation is essential.

Focal Points—III

The Balance of Out-of-School Activities with Academic Work

(As many teachers who would like to introduce newer ways of teaching into their work cannot go to other schools practising them to judge for themselves the merits or demerits of these ways, it was thought that a short series of articles on what might be termed Focal Points of new education would be helpful. Questionnaires were prepared and sent to a number of schools of various types known to be following different specific new methods.

This article is based on answers to the third and last questionnaire)

THE growth of the secondary school population brings new scope and new responsibilities to the secondary day school. Through these State schools the bulk of the nation's children will ultimately pass. Yet these schools can be divided into the few in which the necessity of organizing, and controlling, the out-of-school activities of the children is recognized, and the many in which the responsibility is evaded. In the former there may be too much activity, but in the latter the close relation of education to civilization is overlooked in the concentrated scramble for professional and vocational prowess. If education is to be a fitting preparation for life the 'educational outlook', to quote Sir Michael Sadler, 'should be comprehensive, not narrowly specialized'.¹ The recognition of this should lead to a loosening of the curriculum from the narrow confines of the examination system, and, moreover, to the utilization of out-of-school time for cultural purposes. Under old conditions it might reasonably be supposed that the day school should cater for the child only between the hours of 9 and 4, and leave the rest to parental guidance. But already there are new demands made upon secondary school organization. For there is a new secondary school population whose cultural education can no longer be left to the home. The problem is acute in the day school only, for in the private boarding schools a plethora of activities is the *sine qua non*, and the school life is notoriously hectic. There the problem is merely one of regulation or elimination.

But in the secondary school a reformation of the curriculum to include wider cultural possibilities and some training in social responsibility is a matter of vital necessity. It is to be feared, however, that this is scarcely recognized as yet. It is significant surely that only 20 per cent of the schools to whom a *questionnaire* on the subject was directed, vouchsafed replies, in contrast to the very high percentage of answers received to the preceding *questionnaire* on co-education. The fact that the *questionnaire* was despatched in the last week of term may account in part for the seeming indifference, but the replies received indicated, on the whole, that little is as yet being done, beyond the accumulation of school societies and clubs, to enrich the curriculum. We must beware of setting too much store by these school societies. Their success lies in their handling. Society meetings are too often dreaded affairs, and expeditions merely orgies. The practice of insisting on some creative effort to gain admission to clubs

¹ Introduction to *Four Essentials of Education*. Thomas Jesse Jones. p. xii.

often leads to laboured and unoriginal work produced under compulsion. School societies make great inroads upon the time and energy of teachers and it is time that the fact was recognized and allowance made.

It will probably be found desirable in a school of any size to run a number of societies, such as literary, debating, historical, geographical, dramatic, musical, chess, in addition to games clubs. All can be made to serve dual purpose if the organization is left as far as possible in the hands of the children, who thereby gain excellent experience in management, and in co-operation for the general good. This applies no less to the organization of a junior branch of a League of Nations Union (see p. 203). It is surprising how few schools have taken advantage of the opportunity, afforded by the formation of a Junior Branch, of laying the foundations of such real internationalism as should ensure peace. The organization is simple. Study circles, model assemblies, well chosen debates, nationalist dances, plays, original or otherwise² on the theme of the League, make a varied programme. School journeys to Geneva in the summer holiday can even be arranged at small cost and with untold results.

But the existence of school societies is not enough. The need for revising the curriculum itself is clearly seen. Activities of non-scholastic nature, which now take a very secondary place, must be elevated to the rank of the present 'examination subjects'. It is no use to point to the requirements of the Boards of Examiners. Facts must be faced. Little is done as yet to prepare the child to take his stand in the organization of labour, in society, or in politics. Beyond a certain development in the teaching of modern history, what has been done towards the successful issue of universal suffrage? How far is the power of sane judgment cultivated? How far are the current economic and political questions put before the young? We have failed in our responsibility to the young voter, who on leaving school, plunged into the vortex of wage-earning existence, has little time and less inclination to study the principles of government. There are those to-day who would narrow the franchise, as a first remedial measure in the chaos of these times, but they are prophets in the desert. So long as it is not established that leisure to study problems of government is a necessary qualification for voters, let us undertake to turn out a population free from prejudice and gross ignorance.

² A number of plays dealing with the subject have been written by F. W. Parrott. Galsworthy's *Little Man* is also to be recommended.

Party politics must necessarily be taboo in the schoolroom, but let us undertake to teach the love of fair dealing, the power to divorce true judgment from bias. This may be achieved incidentally without introducing great reforms, but some fundamental move is necessary to cope with the ignorance of current affairs, of the procedure of government, and of the social services. The inclusion of civics in the school curriculum is definitely indicated. Ideally, this subject should have a specialist and should not be relegated as an extra 'stunt' to the history or English staff. But this is hardly possible as yet, and in the meantime we may remember that a 'sense of the community' is best gained by contact with masters and mistresses possessed of a highly developed sense of social and civic responsibility. The ambitious teacher of civics will want not only to introduce a course of civics, showing how we are governed, both locally and centrally, and upon what interesting traditions so much of our government is based, but also to run a model House of Commons. Here the children, initiated into the arts of electioneering, can take their seats in a fictitious 'House' and observe the more obvious procedure, introduce simple bills, consider skeleton budgets, make reports, and so on, until for them the daily paper becomes a mine of information and government no longer a myth.

Not only must a true civic sense and responsibility be fostered in the school, but the curriculum must allow for a higher degree of cultural education. Spasmodic visits to great exhibitions of painting are not enough in themselves, especially where no preparation is given, to provide a cultural background. There is a great wealth to-day of apparatus that can be utilized in the process of education. We have not yet seen the full benefit of educational films. But in science, especially in nature study, in geography, and less in history, there are great possibilities if the schools make the right demand. Again, the wireless is little used in schools as yet, though excellent talks are provided. Every school should have its cinema and its wireless and also, for musical appreciation, its gramophone.

Returning to the curriculum, there is no doubt that the academic requirements predominate. There need be no conflict between cultural and academic and vocational education, but too much stress is laid still upon academic success, and few secondary schools of to-day estimate the value of their pupils upon any other scale. Some leaving-school examination is essential, but too many children are pressed forward uselessly in academic channels. Many, again, are pressed into universities where they continue their competitive struggles, only, in the case of girls, to become teachers—often unprofitably, since teachers

are born as well as made. Thus is the child prepared for a profession, but not for life. The headmistress of a noted girls' school, where pioneer work has been done towards a cultural education, suggests that, for girls, the teaching of mathematics should be reduced to a minimum, and more time be spent on manual work, arts and crafts, and on dramatics and community singing. The teaching of French and German is stressed as paving the way to international understanding.

It has been argued that the overcrowding of the school day with events and activities causes serious strain, and that there are, in fact, too many irons in the fire. This is a reasonable indictment but calls only for adjustment and control. But it would be well, in this age of artificial aids to study, and of constant bustle, if some time could be reserved for the encouragement of reading. Perhaps this hobby might be preserved by a youth movement, as that of walking.

The school is still exam.-ridden, but upon inquiry there seems little evidence in these days, of physical detriment from excessive homework. The school hours in this country, varying between 23-30 hours per week, compare very favourably with continental schools, where 36 hours is normal. Here, a good margin of time is reserved for games. It would be well, in rural areas, if some time could be set aside for outdoor hobbies, such as gardening and bee-keeping.

Returning, in conclusion, to the possibility of enhancing the cultural education in the higher forms of secondary schools where the academic urge is felt most strongly, it is well to consider the functions of an advanced course. We are indebted to Miss Fowlds, Headmistress of the William Gibbs School, Faversham, Kent, for the following analysis of the aims of a sixth-form course:

- i It should provide an adequate background for intelligent citizenship.
- ii It should develop such tastes as will ensure the wise use of leisure by providing resource independent of external distractions.
- iii It should train the intelligence to a degree of clear thinking and suppleness capable of diversion into a variety of channels.
- iv It should equip the child with the foundation on which careers can subsequently be built.

From this same source we have a plea for advanced course work on a wide cultured basis as opposed to direct vocational training in school: 'Eighteen years is a short enough space for direct cultural education. There is a lifetime to follow when business necessity will demand and achieve its own security'.

An Experiment in a Junior School

G. M. CROFTS

Head of Junior Department

ALL the children in this department (*Junior Department, Christchurch School, Ilford, Essex*) are under nine years of age, but many of them joined the Children's League of Nations through *The Children's Newspaper* and we decided to hold regular meetings.

A Chairman and Secretary (a boy and a girl both eight years of age), were elected and carry out their duties very creditably: the Secretary's Minutes are a lively chronicle of all our proceedings. A corner of the School Assembly Hall has been set aside as The Children's League Corner and our children have exercised a good deal of ingenuity in decorating it with pictures of boys and girls in other lands, handwork models, e.g. windmills and houses of Holland, homes of Red Indians, Japanese

buildings, and so on, and suitable verses. The members meet for one hour every week after school in the afternoon.

These activities form a useful link between many subjects and, in particular, give a fresh interest to talks in literature, geography and history. Music is enriched by hearing from gramophone records the songs of other nations. The children have already produced several little pageants and peace plays.

We are told that as a result of our experiment with quite young children the Rules of the League of Nations Union, which eighteen months ago did not provide for the recognition of Junior Branches in schools where the majority of children are under eleven years of age, have been altered to admit our group and similar groups in other junior schools.

The Bookshelf

Books reviewed in this Issue—see page 214

INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHO-ANALYSIS FOR TEACHERS

THE SCHOOL IDEA

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL—*Report of the Consultative Committee*

THE ACTIVITIES CURRICULUM IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

WANDSCHMUCK FÜR SCHULEN

Books Received

MENTAL DEFICIENCY (AMENTIA). *A. F. Tredgold. This fifth edition of the book has been largely re-written, and the investigations made on behalf of the Mental Deficiency Committee of the Board of Education and the conclusions arrived at regarding defectives, were taken into full consideration. Balliere, Tindall & Cox, London. 25s.*

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE CHILDREN'S CLINIC, *Browning House, 19 Warwick Crescent, London, W.2. (Old Address: 85 Clarendon Road, W.11). Describes the development of methods likely to have a considerable influence on the education problem.*

THE PATTERN OF LIFE. *Alfred Adler. Edited by W. Beran Wolfe, M.D. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., London. 8s. 6d.*

THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN ENGAGED IN INDUSTRY, 1833-1876. *A. H. Robson, M.C., M.Sc., Ph.D. Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., London. 10s. 6d.*

WORK: WHAT IT HAS MEANT TO MEN THROUGH THE AGES. *Translated by Dorothy Canfield Fisher from the Italian of Adriano Tilgher. Harrap & Co., London, Bombay and Sydney. 7s. 6d.*

LENIN. *Makers of the Modern Age Series. D. S. Mirsky, Lecturer in Russian Literature in King's College, London. In the same series, MUSTAPHA KEMAL OF TURKEY. H. E. Wortham. The Holme Press, 44 Leicester Square, London, W.C.2. 5s. each.*

Cover Competition Result

The Competition held by The New Era for an original cover design by a child under sixteen years of age closed on 1st April. The entries were numerous and most interesting, but none was considered entirely suitable for actual use on the outside cover of the magazine. All the entries were submitted to the judgment of Mr. Eric H. Kennington, who was Official War Artist, 1916-19, and is particularly known for the Memorial to the 24th Division in Battersea Park, London, and for the British Memorial at Soissons. Mr. Kennington has just completed an over life size seated figure of Thomas Hardy, for the town of Dorchester. Though no design submitted will be used by 'The New Era', a prize of One Guinea has been awarded to the design adjudged best by Mr. Kennington

JUDGMENT

A CHILD has little need of assistance in its Art life. What we can do is to provide it with the materials for work, allow it access to vital work, and discuss the results as much as the child asks, and, of course, shout 'Hurray!'—and by and for ourselves, study and enjoy the work.

What we must not do is to discipline, direct, correct, set works to copy, surround the child with degenerate or sentimental work, because the Art activity of a child is health and growth, and, unless we tamper, is under the control of the child.

In this competition, half a dozen countries have sent, in all, over one hundred works. In my opinion they range from exquisite to really bad, from vital to dead.

There is a child's paradise in Ironwood, Michigan. There each child is able to paint its objective or subjective imaginings and each paints different pictures. The best are by the youngest, which is usual, for they are most complete. Somewhere about eight years is reached a stage of transition and complication, and unity is rarer.

The work from Berkeley, California, is a delight. Sense-life could hardly be stronger, nor expression more capable. There is not one object seen actually, as by a camera. All are felt images.

The River Forest children have great variety of approach—creative, literal and traditional.

The Study School, Montreal, Canada, begins to discipline the children's Art. It is a poster tradition and all would reproduce excellently. It is a healthy tradition, but it is ours. We have taught them to imitate us, while we might learn from them.

Java and Ceylon are far removed from our

criticism. The children are intensively and successfully disciplined and send us exquisite and delicate work. Their ages are not given. They follow, with one exception, a long-established tradition, such as we have never had, and they have not our urge to discovery and newness.

Great Britain sends the majority. I select a picture of a cow, a meadow and a child, by A. Mears, of Edinburgh. It is the only *child's* picture in the British section.

After that I will not hide my depression.

What are we doing to these young lives? Something is encouraging them mentally and morally, and discouraging them sensually, spiritually, psychically, emotionally. The process is with best intentions, and is very successful. The teachers can and do teach, and the children obey and do not question or protest. But this 'teaching' is a solid barrier between the child and life. Contact is broken—in most cases, I fear, permanently.

The instinct, feeling, spirit, has been badly hurt. They are untrue to themselves and are slaves of a formula or tradition. What a tradition!—the camera, the comic illustrator, the press draughtsman, the romantic fairy tale picture. Their trees never grew or lived, their animals only exist as toys with human spirits, their self-portraits working, playing, running, dancing, living, are seen with grown-ups' eyes from outside, not from a wealth of inner feeling, which is a child's birthright. I had thought that this youngest generation had come into its own, but this work shows otherwise.

The good thing about my Public School was that free personal art expression was encouraged during holidays and prizes were given. This produced lively work, but during term the Art School was a room of detention and punishment and the only teaching was drawing casts

and writing copperplate. Twenty years after leaving I returned to paint the Headmaster and read a notice in the hall which had not changed: 'Boys wearing soft collars must notify their master or prefect as to the cause, or they will be sent to Art School.'

If the children's minds must be exercised, a harmony—a balance—can be kept if they themselves exercise their senses. This is especially essential up to eight years old. Let them have access to work—live, sensual, æsthetic, and intellectually right; provide them with brushes, paints, water, pencils, strongly coloured chalks, and they will return masses of fun and joy.

There is enough in this batch of work for public show. I wish we had more shows of free child Art.

Winner.—Calvin Roy—*A Pirate Ship*.

All those *Commended* placed equally.

(Signed) ERIC H. KENNINGTON

THE JUDGE'S COMPLETE SELECTION

Prize Winner

Calvin Roy, 622 Lake Avenue, Ironwood, Michigan.

Commended

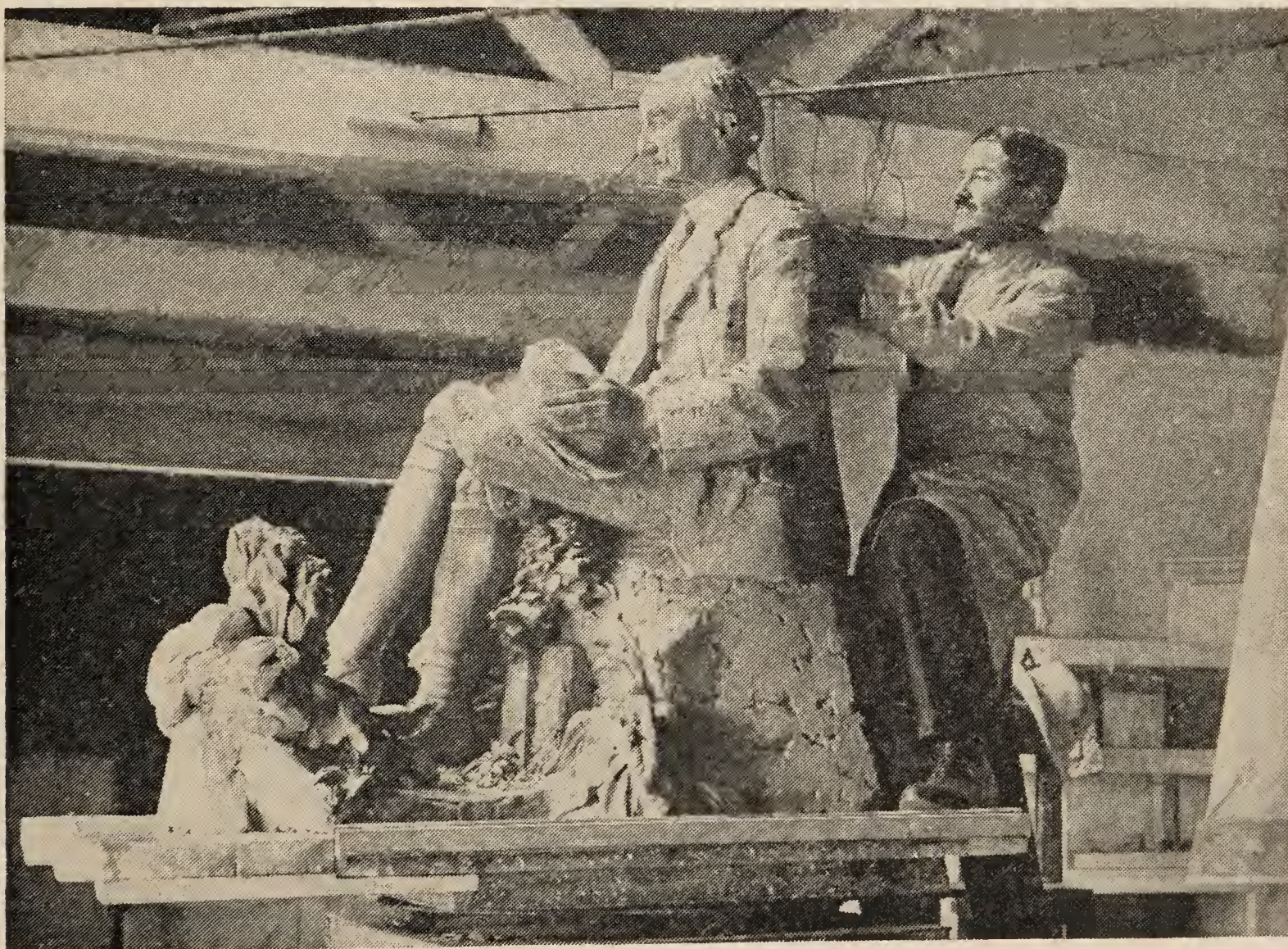
Leroy Anderson, 1115 Celia Street; John Babich, 213 Junell Street; Joseph Banaszak, 216 Coolidge Avenue; Regina Cven gros, 102 E. Tofty Street; Margaret Giannunzio, 405 Silver Street; Joyce Hendrikson, 114 E. Pine Street; Volevi Lahti, 211 McLeod Avenue; Elizabeth Leppala, 603 Greenbush Street; Clifford Lindquist, 69 Newport Location; Estrina Schiavetti, 514 Bundy Street; Jean Stenstrom, 1013 Sutherland Avenue; Ironwood, Michigan.

Margaret Jones, Roosevelt School, River Forest, Illinois.

Barbara Beckwith, 1011 Sutler Street; Alan Bruce, 1443 Scenic Avenue; David Hughes, 784 Euclid Avenue; Graham Leupp, 1838 San Juan Avenue; James McCafferty, 589 San Luis Road; Patricia Verdi, 962 Euclid Avenue; Berkeley, California.

A. Mears, 14 Ramsay Gardens, Edinburgh, Scotland.

Moeljono }
Saun } from H. Geurtz, Blitar, Java.
Svebroto }



Mr. Kennington working on the Figure of Thomas Hardy

Young Puppeteers

ZACHARY SCHWARTZ

Shop Teacher at the Modern School, Stelton, N.J.

THE fact that puppets are all the rage at the Modern School came about purely by accident. A little boy of five and a half came into the shop and made what resembled a small wooden head, and with his fingers for the head's arms, promptly gave a show to those in the shop. That was the beginning of an activity that took the school by storm—there isn't a child in the school that hasn't made three puppets, and several have made as many as twelve each.

The making of the puppet was so simple that the very youngest pupil was successful at the task, and one of the most popular puppets was made by a six-year-old.

In general, they were begun by cutting a block between two and three inches long from some two-inch square wood. A quarter-inch hole was then drilled in the bottom (one of the ends) and a piece of dowel five inches long inserted. Some were drilled large enough to accommodate the index fingers in which case the finger instead of the stick operated the head. A rather novel but simple idea was used for the nose. A nail was driven in on the spot the nose was to be and some plastic wood applied over the nail and modelled into the proper shape. (When dry, plastic wood is as hard as wood itself.) Ears, if required, were put on by the same method as the nose. The heads were then ready to paint. Meaningless pieces of wood before, they become realistically grotesque after colour has been put on.

The dresses were of cloth about twelve inches square to go over the puppeteer's arm and hand (in sleeve fashion) and tacked to the bottom of the puppet's head. Two holes were then cut in the cloth about an inch and a half below the head for the arms of the puppet (the puppeteer's thumb and index or third finger). A small ring sewed on the bottom of the dress served to hang the puppet on the rack.

Most of the hair was made of wool and glued or tacked to the top of the head. Eye-brows, moustaches and beards were also made of wool and put on in the same way. Some of the children used string, cord, cotton batten, raffia and even their own hair instead of the wool.

Clothing such as hats, coats, and jackets, were made in whatever way the children fancied.

Cows, horses, chickens, foxes, dragons and many other animals were made by the children. The cow had ears of leather and bent nails for horns. The chicken was modelled out of plastic wood re-inforced with wire. The dragon had four rows of copper teeth through which smoke would come forth in dense clouds (by way of a rubber tube in its mouth). But all the ingenious devices are too numerous to mention.

Chairs, tables, beds, swords, axes, aeroplanes and boats were a few of the many stage properties made to satisfy the enormous appetities that puppets have for doing impossible things.

The theatre, made of beaverboard and supported by a light wood framework, was made by some of the older children. The front was forty-eight by sixty-six inches and the stage opening sixteen by twenty-four inches cut out four inches from the top of the theatre. A piece of wood four inches wide was put along the bottom of the stage opening (in shelf fashion) to give better perspective. The sides were twenty-four inches wide and hinged to the front so that the theatre could be folded up and put away.

The curtain, hung on rings and worked with pulleys to pull sideways, functioned 'just like a real one'. The back-drop scenery was painted on brown wrapping-paper. Sometimes as many as twenty drops were tacked to a piece of wood long enough to reach across the sides of the theatre.

An adjustable, folding, shelf-like cross-piece was placed behind and several inches below the stage opening on which the elbows of the puppeteer could rest while he operated the puppets.

A rack two feet high with several rows of hooks was made for hanging the puppets.

A light was fastened on each side of the theatre for general lighting purposes. In addition, lovely coloured effects were obtained by the use of a small home-made spot-light and coloured gelatine.

Some of the older children did several of the puppet plays in silhouette. For this, a white muslin screen was placed directly behind the theatre curtain, and the scenery, cut out of wrapping-paper and tacked on a light wood frame, was hung directly behind the screen. The spot-light and gelatine furnished the light. One of these plays, in which three skeletons (delicately cut out of paper) had the major rôles, was especially successful. One of the skeletons, Bill by name, had some red gelatine pasted on his paper body. On the audience side of the screen this was to show that 'he hadn't been down there long'.

Well over a hundred little plays—everything from Shakespeare to fairy tales—were presented, but by far the most numerous and popular were little sketches improvised on the spur of the moment.

One would think that after months of work on an activity, interest in it would begin to flag, but that is far from being the case; it seems, on the contrary, to acquire an ever greater intensity in what is apparently a limitless field.

First Steps to Freedom—‘The Play’s the Thing . . .’

LOLA B. HOFFMAN

Member of Staff, Kern Avenue School, Los Angeles, California

AS the whiting remarked to the snail: ‘What matters it how far we go? . . . There is another shore, you know, upon the other side. The further off from England the nearer is to France.’

Even so we defend our version of the activity programme as it is realized (not to mention criticized) in our daily work. This version meaning to us a rollicking, riotous life with romance and high adventure lurking at every corner; and bringing zest to our days and a delightful air of uncertainty to our daily programme.

I never know, when I arrive in the morning, what will be waiting on my doorstep. It may be anything from a long-deceased fish to a beaded gown and high-heeled slippers for the queen of Spain.

And I am never sure what may occur during the course of a day. The spirit may move us to organize clubs; and magically, from one to eight clubs will spring full-fledged from our midst, equipped with private offices, uncomfortable but inviolate, a full quota of officers, and the usual American superfluity of laws, though lacking their laxity in enforcement. Another day we may be found immersed in arithmetic: joyously participating in an all-day orgy of numbers. Often we spend a day or more with poetry; reading it, learning it, or, just as casually and naturally, composing it individually or in groups. On occasion (a rare one) we have followed a definite schedule of reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, music, and so on.

However, with us the play is the thing. Nearly all our classroom activity centres around our plays. We call ourselves the ‘Neighbourhood Theatre’; and we do extensive advertising with outside signboards and bulletins. We do even more extensive rehearsing with groups scattered all the way from our small back room to the benches at the farthest end of the playground. In the course of a morning I am likely to be waited upon by an emissary from a group working on the ‘Pony Express’, and requested to step down to the baseball ground to see if the play is ‘getting somewhere’ which is our chief requirement. Or I may be invited to the front steps to choose between applicants for the part of a goat, who are lustily trying out.

Each group works under a director—self-appointed and usually self-sufficient; though he may repair to me to confide his grievances against actors and actresses, or to beg assistance in quieting the mob when he selects his cast. For he always has a dozen applicants for each part; and for a fat part such as a king’s or a robber’s, the competition often becomes a riot.

Our plays are always original, therefore usually without form or polish. But there is fresh young vigour in every line. ‘What is the idea’, severely demands King Ferdinand of Spain, bending an

inquiring eye on Prince Henry of Portugal, ‘of teaching this Columbus here, that the world is round?’

And Columbus, forgetting the deference due a king, shakes his fist under his nose and shouts: ‘It’s round I tell you! It’s as round as an orange.’

‘it’s flat!’ thunders the king. ‘It’s as flat . . .’ he searches wildly for a simile, and roars triumphantly, ‘it’s as flat as a pancake.’

So go the hastily composed, vigorously rehearsed sketches that we enjoy at all hours. But along with these is a full-length play on which we are spending many months. For this we do an immense amount of research. For it we make authentic scenery and properties. And in its composition we use all the knowledge of plot, characterization and form we have gained from our reading and from the shorter, more ephemeral plays. Also, we produce it with puppets. We identify ourselves with these tiny people who can make of the simplest gestures a breath-taking adventure: who are droll and pathetic and altogether lovable. We become one with these odd little caricatures of humanity who laugh and weep and walk so like us, yet with a quaint exaggeration and in an atmosphere *wo der Wunschen noch geholfen hat*. And so, of course, we make pure enchantment of it all.

‘What matters it how far we go?’ We have the same gay certainty as the whiting: ‘There is another shore you know, upon the other side’. And our glimpses of it have been wholly satisfying. We have seen our solemn young directors weighed down with responsibility and importance discussing the exact inflection a dog should use when he speaks for food. We have heard their disgusted comments on temperamental stars, and seen their earnest efforts for order and progress. We have caught the gleam in his eye, the suspended breathing of a colourful pirate as creative genius burns and he adds a rakish black patch to the ensemble of cardboard knife and calico bandana. Also, we have known that magic day when, with every problem solved, our play moulded into shape, our scenery and properties complete to the last wind-bent carolling poppy, and our characters hanging in prim rows behind the stage, their strings fairly quivering with excitement, we have presented to our admiring world a ‘show’, perhaps unformed and crude, but infinitely lovely, infinitely appealing, for it has been quickened with the fresh imagination of children and infused with that ‘first, fine careless rapture’ that attends the spontaneous words and actions of little ones who are ‘doing shows’.

‘There is another shore, you know, upon the other side. The further off from England the nearer is to France.’ And just as surely: the further from the teacher-restrained, teacher-motivated, and teacher-directed class the nearer is to the pupil-restrained, pupil-motivated, and pupil-directed class.

The Children's Village in Ben Shemen, Palestine

Dr. SIEGFRIED LEHMANN

Founder

IN Russia after the War, thousands of children, bereft of their homes and parents, were thrown on the streets. The percentage of Jews among these herds of little thieves and vagabonds was very high. In Kovno, Lithuania, where a great number of them took refuge, an attempt was made to awaken the sense of responsibility in these children and to turn them into sociable human beings. They were trained in productive handicrafts such as gardening, agriculture and farming, and the offer made in 1927 by the Jewish National Fund of a farm at Ben Shemen, near Tel-Aviv, was accepted. There a village was constructed by youth for youth, and as it has since been governed by them as well, it is of great interest from the social and educational point of view.

Committees have been formed in Berlin, London, Paris and Amsterdam to collect the funds the village will continue to need for some years to come.

Up to the present, over 200 boys and girls from three to seventeen years of age have been brought up in the Children's Village. The youngest live in groups of twenty to twenty-five; the older ones form groups of twenty-five to thirty. Every group occupies a small house of its own. It is our plan to provide a colony for 350 children, the houses with their gardens to surround the school and a large farmyard. The communal kitchen will be situated in the centre, and mid-day dinner will be prepared there for all the houses. Breakfast and supper will be prepared in the individual kitchens, so that the children will not suffer from the drawbacks of institution life and from the excitement and impersonal aspect of mass education.

The first colonists of Ben Shemen, fourteen young people of fifteen and seventeen years of age, with two teachers, went through all the difficulties and hardships of pioneer construction, which played an important part during the first year. You can imagine that the young people who built their Village with their own hands, do not think of it as an 'institution' but

as their home and their own creation. To-day, there is no trace left of these difficulties. In place of the stifling wooden huts there are stone houses. There is a cool pond in the open air for unbearably hot days. Good stables have been built, the land has been cultivated, and the Village now supplies its own bananas, grapes, oranges, and vegetables of all kinds.

The older boys and girls educate the younger ones and are in charge of the farms, the house-keeping, the kitchen and the wash-houses. They also look after the little ones in the kindergarten. They know that part of the expense of the Village must be covered by the sale of products from their own farms and workshops. They understand that their work in the Village is not school-children's work—a few hours' gardening or carpentry a week; that as there are no paid workers the farm needs them, and that without them what has been sown will die.

Working hours increase from year to year according to age. When help is not needed on the big farm, the older children help the little ones on their farm. The little farm is an exact copy of the large one and is also already producing, although the method is different. The work is adapted to the rhythm of the child so that he can use his own initiative, try out new methods and make his own experiences.

The most important factor in the community life is the Assembly, where all the young people over the age of thirteen gather to debate and to take decisions. The Council (to which some teachers also belong) discuss educational problems. All questions of economics are handled by the Administrative Committee to which each group send two representatives—generally girls. In the beginning, doubts arose as to whether an administrative council comprised of experts and inexperienced young people could be an efficient body. It was feared that the young people would take advantage of their rights in cases where experience was necessary, and it was not expected that this council would exist for very long. These fears have, however,

*Building the Village**[Ben Shemen Children's Village]*

proved unjustified, and this is due to the constant care given in the education to discountenance all that might lead to a wrong idea of individual rights.

Everything that is taught is lived and practised by the teachers and workers in their every-day lives. It is only a question of time until a nucleus of co-workers will put the idea of communal work, which is the fundamental idea of Ben Shemen, into practice. If the community of the Village is the unit where the young people learn to think of and feel themselves as citizens with definite rights and duties, the group, already mentioned, is the unit in which they are at home. To each group are attached a few teachers and workers and, in addition to their house, each will very soon have its own allotment and garden. Boys and girls work together in the kitchens, gardens and poultry-yards, and the boys work in the fields. In the evenings there is dancing or joint group study of future possibilities. Dancing forms so integral a part of the life that a few words of explanation are necessary. Most dances are Arabic round dances accompanied by singing

on the part of the dancers and rhythmic clapping of hands by the onlookers. They are the expression of communal feeling and collective happiness.

Ben Shemen is surrounded by Arab villages—a strange world which we hope through our belief in the brotherhood of man one day to know and understand better. For this reason, friendly relations with the Arabs are always encouraged and maintained. Thus the Children's Village is not an isolated 'ideal': its inhabitants are in real and constant contact with the living world to which they will one day belong.

At the age of seventeen the young people have finished their training and are ready to take their place in the world, but each year they return to spend some time in their own Village. One of the most striking impressions received by a visitor to Palestine is that made by seeing young Jews and Jewesses in the agricultural settlements to whom the work is not merely a profession or a craft, but the fulfilment and realization of themselves. A strong reaction against the commercial traits of their fathers is noticeable in these young people. They do not

want to be hawkers or traders or to be employed by others: they want to create for themselves.

We consider folk-lore and poetry a suitable medium of culture. It is doubtful how far book study can retain its place as spiritual medium after a hard day's work in a hot climate. The problem thus arises in the colony as to whether narrative, drama, or some other means can take the place of the printed word. Community singing and music is an essential part of the cultural work. Rhythmic gymnastics and dancing accompanied by music in a ballroom which, summer and winter, is a green and colourful garden under a blue sky, produce a feeling of happiness and unity unknown in Europe. In our efforts against an unwholesome intellectuality, rhythmic gymnastics can play an important part.

At the beginning, what long and serious discussions we had with the young people on subjects that in Europe are taken for granted! For instance, why is it necessary for every one of the seventy children to have his place in the dining room? Why must all dine at the same time? Why cannot a bedroom be tidied in the

evening instead of in the morning? This kind of discussion will take place for some time to come yet until the mode of living is established in this young country, where an immigrant is considered an old colonist after eight years. The children coming from eastern Jewish families can hardly be judged by the standards of Western Europe. The great diversity of Jewish type in Ben Shemen, to which children now come from all parts of the world, is the cause of many problems. The fundamental idea of education here is to foster the idea of a communal life of harmony and justice: of a Jewish people working and tilling their own land.

Ben Shemen is one of the foundation stones of a building of which even the framework is barely visible to-day, and the completion of which this generation will not see. In this age of irreligion and of mechanics we believe in the greatness of our aim, which is definite, clear and realizable—not to-morrow, but to-day. It is not a vague ideal somewhere far away, but something to be done here and now.

Further particulars from the Hon. Secretary, 61 Dartmouth Road, London, N.W.2.



A Lesson in Science

[Ben Shemen

Letters to the Editor

The Editor *The New Era*

DEAR MADAM,

I feel that I should correct the erroneous impression which your comments on my book *Chiron, or the Education of a Citizen of the World*, in your issue for April 1931 show that you have formed from it.

The 'Federal School' outlined in the Appendix to that book exists at present only in imagination; it is too great a task for one man to undertake single-handed with any hope of success. My 'experimental school', Alpine College, has been in existence for six years; as far as private enterprise can reach, this school is run on the lines of that Appendix and approximates more and more nearly to the principles which are there stated, but it is not yet a 'federal school'.

The suggestion of a 'Federal School' was, as I said in *Chiron*, a 'ballon d'essai' inviting the winds of criticism. It is a project which could only be successfully launched by corporate effort. I have received a great number of encouraging comments on the scheme and shall be more than glad to hear from any of your readers who may be in sympathy with it. I have to thank you for the sympathetic interest in the conception which *The New Era* has expressed.

Believe me,

Yours faithfully,

M. CHANING-PEARCE

*Alpine College,
Arveyes s/Bex, Switzerland*

The Editor *The New Era*

DEAR MADAM,

In the April number of *The New Era* Dr. Bousfield places a ban upon fairy tales and dolls against which many of your readers will surely be moved to protest.

His assertion that the doll 'has little or no value in a child's growth' seems strange when one considers the variety of activities to which a child is stimulated by this popular plaything.

Fairy tales and fictions of all kinds may no doubt be abused, but they may form a valuable factor in mental development. They give a young child practice in the newly acquired power of forming mental images and of combining them into various wholes. This power

of imaginative, once developed, can later be directed in accordance with definite rules. Most normal children do not confuse the fairy tale realm with the world of scientific fact. They enjoy beautiful childish fictions just as adults enjoy the plays of Shakespeare or the novels of Meredith. The loveliest fairy tales, such as 'The Sleeping Beauty' and 'Beauty and the Beast', are, like 'Hamlet' and 'The Tempest', true to human nature, and full of the poetry which belongs to our spiritual life. Great truths presented in this way by the genius of an individual or of a people belong to the order of things which 'the world will not willingly let die'. All forms of imaginative literature help us to adjust ourselves to the hard realities of life by enabling us to withdraw from them for a brief breathing-space in order to face them again afterwards with renewed vigour.

'Actual fulfilment in activity' Dr. Bousfield demands 'as the final outcome of imagination'. Religion and all forms of art give men vision and feeling, which must, in the long run, profoundly modify action. It seems doubtful, however, whether the poet and the seer should always be expected to carry out their own ideas. There may also be stages in the life of an individual when he is rather a poet than a man of affairs. Reality is wider and deeper than Dr. Bousfield suggests. It includes the things which satisfy man's material wants and also those which minister to his spiritual needs.

Yours etc.,

ALICE M. JACKSON

48 Pollards Hill East,

London, S.W.16

13th April 1931

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International Notes

War and the Next Generation

An interesting editorial appeared in the *New Statesman and Nation* for April 11th on the subject of Mr. Angus Roberts' presidential address to the National Union of Teachers, England. The editor writes:—'Mr. Angus Roberts was perfectly right when he said . . . that the danger of war still lies in its glamour—in "the indefinite form of admiration" which still clings to it. He was right too, in saying that the problem of peace is a problem of education. For modern war is the product of ignorance and idealism, not of far-sighted wickedness. There was a time when kings could make war with mercenaries and pressed troops; in democratic countries war is only possible on a basis of overwhelming popular approval.' There is a need to bring up 'a new generation to recognize that martial patriotism is an out-of-date virtue . . . and that to-day international war is civil war and that to take part in another war will be to share not in an honourable adventure, but in something that is individually shameful as well as socially suicidal. It becomes individually shameful just as soon as we have grown out of the national stage of consciousness: just as soon as we have learnt that civilization does not consist of one's own country and some other countries which may at any moment threaten it and need us to teach them a lesson, but of a community of nations which live or die together.

'If modern international history is taught objectively, if there is the notion that foreign countries contain persons much like ourselves, if the picture of the world as an organic whole is the everyday background, then the kind of propaganda which made the last war possible will fall flat when the next is threatened.'

'Knowledge and international morality are the only safeguards . . . If it should get about that war means not fighting in any sense that boys understand, but scientific ways of shooting, burning and poisoning people of their own kind in large numbers, is there anything chimerical in Mr. Roberts' notion of making the individual act of fighting seem a shameful thing?'



The International Link of Youth

has now made its appearance. It is the monthly magazine promised by the Liaison Committee of Major International Associations and its title is A-Z. Its purpose is to contribute to the work of the promotion of peace by widening the horizon of the young in their daily work and by inspiring them with a sympathetic interest in people of other countries. The first number is mostly pictorial and is intended to give an outline of the type of material which will be treated in its pages. It is printed in English, French, German and Spanish. Publishing office—39 rue Archereau, Paris 19. Subscription, 7s. 3d. or \$1.80 per annum.

America

Dr. S. A. Courtis, Professor of Education in the University of Michigan, sailed for Europe early in February to participate in a preliminary research which, if successful, should pave the way for an extensive measurement of all differences in methods and results between the educational systems of the world. This preliminary research consists in an attempt to measure ten thousand children in England, Germany, France, and Italy for five factors: (1) rate of eruption of teeth; (2) growth in height and weight; (3) performance in standing broad jump; (4) performance in a new type of mental test; (5) performance in a spelling test.

N. E. F. Bureau for the Pacific Coast—A group of people interested in progressive education held meetings in Los Angeles in 1929 and 1930. A committee was appointed to find ways and means of providing a clearing house of information about progressive schools in California for visiting educators and information to Californians about educational progress throughout the world, and the bureau is now gathering material. It is located at 3551 University Park, Los Angeles, and is under Miss Lillian Getty, secretary of the Los Angeles University of International Relations, who will be glad to have information of new projects. Dr. Rufus B. von Kleinsmid, President of the University of Southern California and Chancellor of the Los Angeles University of International Relations, sponsors the bureau.

Films—The talkies are entering the school. Several new educational pictures have been announced by Electrical Research Products Inc. The titles include 'The Creative Approach to Education', by Hughes Mearns; 'The Study of Infant Behaviour'—A pictorial description of the work of the Yale psychoclinic by Dr. Arnold Gesell, 'Tests of Child Intelligence', by Mrs. I. T. Sartorius, of the Horace Mann School, New York, showing the technique of administering Binet-Simon tests.

Intelligence Tests Discontinued—The Horace Mann School, Teachers College, Columbia University, has discontinued grouping on the basis of abstract mental ability as measured by intelligence tests.

The Berkeley, Cal., principals' and supervisors' association in their study of supervision tried the experiment of all elementary principals exchanging buildings for one week.



Austria

The Fifth Vienna Summer School will be held from 1st to 28th July. Details from the Austro-American Institute of Education, Elisabethstr. 9, Vienna I. Courses will be given in English on Comparative Religion, Psychology, and Music.

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Canada

Members of the New Education Fellowship have been actively at work this winter:

Toronto—In November 1930, Professor F. Clarke of McGill University addressed the Fellowship Group on 'Some Impressions of Canadian Education' and gave the result of wide and able search for historic causes, latent possibilities, present defects and future trends.

In January 1931, Mr. Lisner, Director of the Toronto Art Gallery, lectured on 'Art and the Child'. Miss Rebecca J. Coffin of the Elementary Department, Teachers College, Columbia University, addressed the Group at a dinner in February.

Dr. William Boyd of Glasgow University, visiting Professor at Columbia University, has been secured for the Easter Convention of the Ontario Education Association. It is hoped that through the services of Mrs. E. A. Bott of the St. George's School of Child Study, a meeting may be arranged with the delegation of British Headmistresses now visiting Canada.

Victoria, B.C.—The following lectures have been held by the Fellowship Group. In March 1930, 'Significant Trends in Education', by Dr. Ernest Thomas of Toronto; in April, 'The Modern Education Movement in Europe', by Mrs. S. Jameson, Judge of the Juvenile Court, Burnaby, B.C. In May the Group witnessed a private showing of the first B.C. educational film shown by the British Picture Producers Ltd.; in September a luncheon was given to Dr. and Mrs. Paul Dengler of Vienna. Another lecture of note was that given on 'The New Education in Germany', by Mr. C. B. Wood. In January 1931, a round-table conference was held in conjunction with the High School Teachers' Association, and in March the Group co-operated with the Canadian National Council of Education in a meeting which was addressed by Dr. Ludwig Müller (Germany).

Interchange of Teachers—According to the plan of interchange of teachers followed in Ontario, the teachers during the year of exchange retain their own salaries and the year is credited to them for all educational purposes the same as if it had been spent in their own schools. During the year 1930-31, thirty-one Ontario teachers are on exchange in other parts of the Empire, or in other provinces of Canada.

Nova Scotia—Nova Scotia has established correspondence courses for teachers in service by which a teacher may now advance her scholastic standing by correspondence, and will be examined on any given subject when she announces that she is ready for it. This year 630 teachers took advantage of the courses.



Czecho-Slovakia

Unification of Curricula—At the beginning of the school year a new provisional primary school curriculum was put into force for a period of 3 years, of which the aim is to prepare for the adoption of the methods of the activity school. Instruction is to be individualized.

MARGARET McMILLAN

No one yet realizes what the world has lost in Margaret McMillan. 'Chosen, charmed, endangered' from the beginning, she made herself a channel for the unseen forces which move the world. In all the accounts of her life emphasis has been laid on her work for physical education, but there is a danger that this may be misunderstood.

When she joined the Bradford School Board in 1894, her schemes at first were for the teachers. For them she started French classes, art classes, lessons in voice-production; but as she made daily visits to the schools the conclusion was forced upon her that it was no use beginning at the end—she must start at the beginning. The headmistress (now retired) of an infant school in one of the worst slums in the city, said to me: 'When Margaret McMillan came to Bradford she knew nothing about infants. She came into my school and asked the children:

"What colour is a lily?"

"Green," answered a little boy.

"No, not green: white, dearie: white and pure as our bodies should be."

There spoke the mystic, and a mystic is one who sees life as a whole. She never rested, then, until that school was provided with baths, and children who had not been washed all over since they were born became as the lilies of the field.

For her there was always more than a physical aspect to material things. Cleanliness *was* holiness, food a sacrament, sleep the great mystery of renewal; as for the body itself, 'whole universes are wounded in its abasement, crying from stone to star'. That is why she had to begin at the beginning. There must be no rickets, no adenoids, no dirty heads. These infants were already damaged when they came to school, and the schools were built to match the mills. Sun and air, which would have cured disease, were shut out, and the windows were so high up that the little ones could not see out of them. Why, of course, the babies must be brought up in a garden: Froebel had said so years ago; but it had never been done on a large scale.

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Book Reviews

Introduction to Psycho-Analysis for Teachers. *Anna Freud. Translated by Barbara Low. Allen & Unwin, London. 3s. 6d.*

This well-translated little volume consists of four lectures given to teachers at the Children's Centres of Vienna. The emotional development of the child is traced, stage by stage, from infancy to puberty, and throws a good deal of light on the emotional conflicts of the school child, and their relationship to experiences in the child's earliest years.

The first lecture, which deals with infantile amnesia, is particularly interesting, explaining as it does, why it is difficult for adults to recall the events of the first four or five years of life. The instinct-life of the infant is lucidly dealt with, as is also the 'latency period' (from about five years to adolescence), and there is an excellent lecture on the value of psycho-analysis to pedagogy, which should prove of the greatest value to teachers.

As its title indicates, the book does not claim to be more than a short introduction to the science of psycho-analysis, and should lead to a desire for a more detailed study of the subject. It is written in simple, concise language, and almost entirely devoid of technicalities, but where psycho-analytical terms do occur, they are clearly explained.

Altogether an excellent little volume, and a distinct contribution to educational literature, which should prove valuable to parents as well as teachers, and all who have the care of young children. *Mabel Wainman.*

The School Idea. *By Valentine Davis. Allen & Unwin, London. 6s.*

Propaganda needs more than sincerity to make it effective; it must be clever as well as sincere or it defeats its own ends. Mr. Valentine Davis' plea for more education for children is so badly written that the reader is inclined to forget about the children in his desire for more education for Mr. Valentine Davis.

The object of this essay is to prove that education by the method of schooling is natural and necessary, and to urge teachers, parents and the State to combine in an effort for more and better schools. Unfortunately Mr. Davis does not argue; he *tells* us. It is interesting to be told some things: it is interesting to read that Great Britain is now spending £315 million a year on 'drink' and only £73 million on education, and that while six per cent of the national income is spent on education, sixteen per cent goes on armaments. But when Mr. Davis tells us things less incontrovertible than statistics he is less interesting. He spoils an historical sketch of the development of the school idea by overstatement: he asserts that the Education Act of 1870 'is *the* most important measure of the Victorian era'. In his chapter on State control of education he advocates more payment and less control by the State without glancing at the argument on the other side. He upholds co-operation between parents and teachers, and gives a long description of 'The Mothers' Social Hour' which was

held apparently every week in his own school. And he pads out his book to a presentable bulk by a chapter on 'The School Idea and Modern Civilization', in which he prints a four-page extract from an after-dinner speech by Mr. Baldwin. Altogether Mr. Davis mishandles what should be a very strong case. His tone may be judged from the last sentence of the book: 'Shall we, then, resolve that we will strive to become fit servants of the *Idea*, and that we will obey the *Call*, seeking to serve the child in the midst?' Mr. Davis has this printed in block capitals.

The danger of this little essay is that its readers, presumably teachers and parents of children in state-aided schools, may be turned against the author's very excellent ideals by his too special pleading.

Report of the Consultative Committee on the Primary School. *Published by His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, W.C.2. 2s. 6d.*

In his section of the Report on Mental Characteristics, Dr. Cyril Burt states: 'The years from seven to eleven might almost be termed the Dark Ages of Childhood'. To help to lighten the darkness a committee was appointed to inquire and report as to the courses of study suitable for children (other than children in infants' departments) up to the age of eleven. *The Primary School* is the outcome of this inquiry.

The report places the primary school in its rightful place in the educational system, and is an expression of the most advanced thought on the treatment of children of this age. Even if we seem to have heard of most of the findings in previous Board of Education 'Suggestions' or 'Reports' it will still be good for us to read again and benefit from such sensible counsel.

The book starts with an excellent historical chapter, and then deals in a most comprehensive way with such subjects as premises—equipment—playing fields, internal organization, examinations and school records, rural schools, retarded children, curriculum, and so on.

The whole curriculum is based on the fundamental principle that the primary school 'is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than knowledge to be acquired or facts to be stored'.

In a short review it is impossible to dwell on the suggested treatment of separate subjects, but it is interesting to note the comparatively small space given to arithmetic, when at present it is usual to give to its study at least one-fifth of the school time. If this report does no more good than put this subject into proper perspective it will contribute to the general happiness of both children and teachers.

The Committee suggests greater unity of the curriculum and tentatively advises the more general adoption of the Project Method. As a way of breaking down the usual 'subject' divisions of the curriculum teaching by projects is excellent. So long as the projects are centred round *child* interests and give scope for independent work suited to individual differences

and not 'laboured' and prolonged beyond the life of the *child* interests, they will be a useful adjunct to primary school methods. The Committee wisely cautions us, however, that this method be employed only 'where conditions are favourable to its success'. In many instances this might be interpreted by adequate cupboard room, sufficient space (out and in) and small classes!

A large section of outstanding importance deals with the physical and mental growth of the child of this period, and explains why seven years of age is the best time to make a 'break' (an unfortunate term to use) in the child's mode of education. The need for continuity of infant school methods in the lower stages of the primary school with a similar co-operation with the upper stages and the various types of Secondary Schools is emphasized.

Dr. Cyril Burt again reminds us of the astounding variations of mental ages, e.g. children with the chronological age of eleven years may have a mental age of fifteen, while retarded children of fifteen may have a mental age of seven or even six. We cannot fail to realize that methods must be devised which will allow children of all grades of ability 'to acquire the priceless habit of independent purposeful work' by proceeding in their own way at their own rate as in the Howard Plan or the Dalton Plan—both outcomes of Montessori teaching.

Some reference might have been made to such recent aids to educational practice as films and radio. They are bound to come into common use at no distant date.

At this time of transition we welcome this comprehensive report, but the ideals embodied in it can never become effective until we cease to allow the work of the school to be dominated (as at present) by the existence of a free-place examination with arithmetic papers taking up one half of the total time allowed to test subjects.

A few only of the outstanding features have been indicated, but the whole report with its many wise recommendations should not only be in the hands of every teacher and student as a most useful book of study, but also in the hands of every member of the Board and Local Authority who can be instrumental in furthering hygienic conditions and in granting necessary equipment.

Mary Anderson.

The Activities Curriculum in the Primary Grades. By Marion Payne Stevens. D. C. Heath & Co. \$2.00.

One of the problems which confronts the teacher who bases her curriculum on activities instead of on subjects is that of the form in which she shall arrange her material for her own guidance and for others who may be interested to learn from her experience. This problem Mrs. Stevens has tackled boldly and thoroughly; and if the arrangement of the contents of this book strikes one at first as a little clumsy, one is at a loss to say how the same ends could have been achieved by simpler means.

The book sets out to show what is meant by a curriculum based on activities; how it works; how it differs from a subject matter curriculum; what is the

place of the three R's and what is the teacher's function. No light task indeed, and so admirably accomplished that it is difficult to refrain from lengthy quotations.

In the Section on the programme (or time-table) the author pleads for one that is flexible and elastic; when once planned in outline 'it should be used as a servant, not as a master'.

The problem of discipline is very fully dealt with. The author is not of the opinion that discipline takes care of itself in an atmosphere of freedom. On the contrary, she says: 'Discipline under an activities curriculum presents more initial difficulties and problems than does discipline of a more repressive type . . . The more liberty they [the children] have at first, the more difficult it is for them to use it wisely and well.'

A large and attractively illustrated portion of the book is devoted to descriptions of actual and possible activities and units of work, which should prove stimulating to teachers who are already attempting to work along these lines.

A valuable appendix includes a list of equipment for the children's use together with practical suggestions for storing and organizing it. There is also a list of books for children and a teacher's bibliography. Although the books and materials mentioned are nearly all American the lists are extremely helpful and suggestive to an English reader.

This book, so firmly based on sound progressive educational theory, and so obviously the outcome of everyday experience with children, should be warmly welcomed by all who believe with Dr. Kerschensteiner that 'the school should be a laboratory, not an auditorium'.

Jeanie V. Slight.

Wandschmuck für Schulen. By Otto Wommelsdorf. Pädagogischer Verlag GmbH., Düsseldorf, Germany. 7s. (RM. 7).

This book by a well-known teacher in Hamburg is an attempt to compile a collection of pictures suitable for wall decoration in schools. Germany is rich in good pictures that have long been used not alone in its own schools but also in those of other countries. But the basis of choice of such pictures has altered of late years—or it has still to be altered. There still hang on school walls many pictures which have no interest for children, which do not appeal to them in the least. The right of children to decoration that they can understand, to pictures to which they feel drawn, is not often recognized even in these days. Their creative powers are practically never used to the full for school decoration. Their own original pictures should be the first to be used for this purpose. This book shows very careful choice from the enormous number of pictures, other than the children's, that might be used, and many illustrations add to its value for the teacher. The pictures are chosen and listed according to their suitability for the different school years as indicated by the extensive researches of Herr Wommelsdorf and his friends in Hamburg. The book would be very valuable to teachers in other countries as well as in Germany.

Karl Wilker.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

Neglect of Geography Despite progress made in the last ten years, geography is still too often regarded as a subject of little or no importance. The tendency is to relegate it to the junior and middle schools and to allow it to be 'dropped' in senior forms where serious academic or examination work is being undertaken. It is almost always the first subject to be elbowed out of the over-crowded curriculum—often it is not in it at all. The time-tables in many of the English Public Schools ignore its existence. Perhaps this is due to the capes-and-bays method which engendered distaste of a parrot-like repetition of disassociated facts. Such learning was barren because it was divorced from man, and his work in the world. Mere lists led nowhere, and were therefore discarded by the mind. The war, modern inventions, travel facilities, and the will for peace have altered our conceptions of the meaning of geography, and it is now coming into its own. The difference between the old dry bones of geographic abstractions and meaningless images, and the real living flesh-and-blood geography is well described by Mrs. Sprague Mitchell in her article, 'Geographic Thinking'.

But very great progress has been made. After reading the articles in this issue we think readers will realize that things are going forward in all types of school, elementary, secondary and public. To us in England it is particularly cheering to read E. D. Laborde's article on 'The New Geography'. Many of us are inclined to regard the Public Schools as standing aloof from the newer outlook in and methods of education, but the number of Public Schools which are turning to modern ways is growing rapidly, and in the curriculum of these geography plays an important rôle.

Science and Art A good deal of controversy has raged as to whether geography should be regarded as a science or as an art. The University of London places it in both faculties, for its two-fold character gives it a two-fold method of approach. Professor Taylor, Professor of Geography at the University of London, laid stress on this in an address recently delivered in London. She described geography as something to be apprehended and understood as a poem is understood, and also as something the materials of which can be sorted and classified. In the last century we failed to make of geography either an art or a science. To use Professor Taylor's phraseology, it was composed of 'bits and pieces' until Herbertson came along as the advocate of synthesis and wholeness. Unfortunately, a great many teachers still collect the 'bits and pieces' and fail to see either that they should, or how they might, compose them into a whole. One of the difficulties is the enormous range covered by geography. Professor Taylor is of the opinion that its study should centre round the harmonious adjustments of man and that concentration should be on association of ideas rather than on a casual method of approach. We agree. The important thing is that the subject should be made to appeal to the child and should lead to a better understanding of man and his world. If emphasis is laid anywhere we think it should be laid on the humanistic approach but, because of its two-fold character, it is important to keep a proper balance between that and the scientific.

Geography and History Some teachers seem to find a natural correlation of these two subjects difficult and impracticable. This is curious, for the difficulty would rather seem to be to divide the story of man into

these two parts. We have spoken with many geography and history teachers in both elementary and secondary schools, but we have not yet heard of any school where geography and history are regarded and *taught* as two halves of one whole, or as together forming a complete subject. Each specialist is bent on pushing forward his subject at the expense of the other. Undoubtedly, specialization and examination requirements are the cause, yet to us the position seems artificial and unintelligent. The difficulty in rearranging knowledge groups is that it is almost impossible to find teachers who know as much about history as about geography, and vice versa. Mrs. Spilhaus deals with this in her article on the 'Significance of Geography'. She proposes the dual specialist, but until examinations are reconstructed the way to natural correlation of subject matter is blocked. This reconstruction of the curriculum is one of the next steps to be taken. Harold Rugg's* experiments in social studies and many of the more successful experiments with the Project Method suggest the direction in which the step may be taken.

In the meantime we should like particularly to emphasize the following passage in Mrs. Spilhaus's article: 'Waterloo may have been won on the playing fields of Eton, but the effect of teaching geography and history intelligently and in correlation in the schoolroom would be far reaching, and would contribute substantially to the avoidance of Waterloos in the future.'

Geography and Current Events Here again we should like to see more correlation along the lines of the work done by the

Trawden Council School, Lancashire (see p 227). Whether in the form of newspaper reports, movies, or wireless, geography and current events enter into the lives of all of us and afford excellent opportunities for training in geographic thinking. They can be made the pegs on which to hang ideas, knowledge and right attitudes. They can be the means of associating geographic knowledge with everyday problems. Several articles in this issue suggest ways of doing this. To those of us who see in education the only sure means of ensuring international co-op-

eration, geography and history are the subjects *par excellence* for fostering the will to peace.

Geography and the Teacher Under the right teacher problems of the curriculum diminish. Knowledge is essential, but understanding, a right attitude, and, as Celia and Frederic Evans state, the right emotional approach, are important. It is also essential that teachers should travel in order to enlarge their knowledge and personalities.

Aids to Geography Teaching Lack of space prevents us from publishing lists of good geography textbooks and maps. We have taken it for granted that all geography teachers belong to their national geographical association from which they can obtain advice and guidance in the choice of maps, books and apparatus. For those teachers who may only just be beginning to teach or who live in isolated parts of the world, we have listed a number of the more important Geography Associations in Europe, America and the British Dominions.

Under the heading 'Aids to Teachers', we have also listed some of the less well-known material that teachers have found of practical help. The decorative posters obtainable are a source of joy to children, for they humanize bare walls. As they are also a means of visual stimulation they are a definite aid to learning.

We had hoped to reproduce one of the delightful and practical picture maps designed by Mrs. Spilhaus, but their large scale and wealth of detail made reproduction in small impossible. They show excellently the ease with which history and geography may be correlated, and are suggestive of endless map adventures that children may embark on themselves.

A very valuable aid to mastering place location is the geographical jig-saw puzzle. Six- to nine-years-olds love it, and gain an astonishingly accurate geographical knowledge of place and position through it. The value of play-work of all kinds can hardly be over-estimated. Films, slides, postcards, epidiascopes, tales of exploration, wireless talks, school and home expeditions, journeys and camps—all these enrich the more formal geography teaching if wisely selected and handled.

* *Changing Civilization in the Modern World*. By Harold Rugg. Ginn & Co., London, W.C.1

The Geographical Outlook

H. J. FLEURE

Professor of Geography in the University of Manchester; Honorary Secretary of the Geographical Association

EDUCATIONAL schemes tend to be built up on the vision of the world of the age which gave rise to them, and with that idea in mind one could interpret both mediæval education and the educational system of the grammar schools and the post-renaissance universities. It may be claimed that the industrial revolution and the rise of modern science have vastly modified our vision of the world and that educational schemes are in process of change in consequence of this. In Britain the university of Oxford has played a very great part in illuminating the background of the classics through discoveries in Crete and in many other ways, and the same process has enriched the interpretation of the Scriptures, so that both the Classical and the Hebrew-Christian tradition are now appreciated as cultures with roots far back in pre-history, and a course of evolution felt to be analogous to that of other cultures the world over. The work of Darwin has made us understand that man is a part of nature, and that our forms of civilization and our physical characters are in the nature of adaptations to the opportunities man has found or made as his powers have increased and he has spread into varying environments. The work of Watt, in the meantime, has led to the interweaving of cultures and communications in such a way that men the world over are felt to be deeply interdependent; our daily life in England is closely related in myriad ways to that of negro cultivators in Africa and to that of our kinsmen in the Dominions. Old ideas of a nation doing what seems right in its own interests, regardless of the rest of the world, are no longer tenable; they would lead to chaos. A world order of some kind has to be thought out, and this is admittedly a difficult subject, a problem in which neither sentimental goodwill nor group egoism, however enlightened, can give sufficient guidance. We must have knowledge of the peoples of the world, of the evolution of their forms of civilization, of the opportunities and difficulties which

their environments present to them, and we must also turn our attention objectively upon ourselves and see ourselves as others see us, see our own form of civilization in its evolutionary aspect with the gains and losses that have come to it from the opportunities and difficulties of its historic environment. May one emphasize here that on the one hand we continually go wrong through assuming that our own ways are a standard whereby we are permitted to measure the world, and that on the other hand some of us fall into grave error by assuming that our civilization is in the main the product of human reactions to the particular environment in which we live? A useful correction to the latter error for us in Britain is to make a list of some of our debts to Mediterranean civilizations and to mediæval France. Cultural elements from far-off times and places have counted for more in the building up of our present life than direct influences of our present environment, and yet those influences need to be carefully appreciated if a reasonable picture is to be made; they have shorn off some parts of our cultural inheritance; they have given us opportunities to expand other aspects of it.

It is important, therefore, that in our studies of the peoples of the world, we should increasingly rise above the view which makes men creatures of their various environments. It is, if possible, still more important that we should not, unconsciously, apply our particular standards of values to people in other circumstances and with other problems. To illustrate the danger it is permissible to mention the British opinion so freely and frequently expressed a half century ago that all restrictions of trade should be removed, and that each people should find out the job it was able to do best, and should do that job for as much of the world as possible; that was said to be the way of peace and order. Set over against this the opinion of a thoughtful member of a friendly Continental nation, who said he feared the English were the greatest

dangers to the world's peace of that time because they were always trying to sell their goods in other people's markets instead of living on their own soil like civilized people. This opinion was followed by a reference to the criminal carelessness of a policy which had encouraged a multiplication of population without thought of the future.

Both these widely divergent views have origins in the circumstances and the evolution of opportunities of the peoples concerned; neither has absolute validity, each needs to be checked by the other. We have to realize that all human societies are not climbing up or slipping down the same ladder; we have to try to see the different ladders in an objective way, our own included.

This is the plea for the modern study of geography, and for the interest of teachers and other thinking persons in the working out of a scheme for this, relatively, new subject, which is really a very old one that is being revived. It is freely admitted that much has still to be done to give it order and sequence, that we are still at the experimental stage of development, but it is claimed that, for people to grow up without being well soaked in this stream of thought, is a danger to civilization.

It will be said that the argument above favours the combined teaching of geography and history; it does, but it goes beyond this in its claim that the study of the peoples of the world, their physical and social characteristics and the way in which their civilizations have grown up, is a vital part of our work. It is claimed that we must try to see the peoples of the world as groups facing problems that are in part similar and in part different, working towards solutions that will be different, and must lead to friction unless there is a growth of mutual knowledge and understanding and of respect for views and schemes that may differ very deeply from our own. The day in which it seemed that one idea and one ideal could be spread the world over is past and gone, the age of relativity has arrived no less in the realm of human affairs than in that of theoretical physics.

It is one of the advantages of this study that it is useful not only in the primary and secondary school, but also in the university and throughout life; it can be maintained and developed

apart from special laboratories, it is useful for the maintenance and development of thought among the general public, which, in this matter, has the very important and valuable function of preserving the student in the library and laboratory or out in the field from losing his way in the desert of technicality. But this special advantage carries with it difficult questions as to what should be taught at various stages in education, and to that set of problems the rest of this article will address itself.

We must hope that the fallacy of making a rigid scheme for all to follow will be avoided in the growth of our subject. In education a more mature personality helps to draw out the less mature personalities in its charge, and so method and content depend in a high degree on the persons concerned on both sides, especially in a subject such as ours, which tries to understand the various types of mankind in their various environments. We know, however, that, in what may be called the younger primary school stage, the child's imagination is expanding, it is 'making believe' and so imitating many things that adults do; it loves to go exploring if it gets the chance; it is, in fact, opening out to new contacts all the time. This suggests opportunities for talking about how other people live, though perhaps some experiments in teaching about children in other lands have not been altogether worth while; the child's imaginative world is in one sense a world of grown-ups. How this is to be done must depend on teacher and pupils; some will know how to use folk tales and legends wisely, others will find it easier to select interesting features of the mode of life of peoples of other lands. It will be well not to over-emphasize the old idea that we should think of the negro as producing cocoa and sisal for us, or of the Indian as producing tea or jute for our benefit. That way lies the danger of encouragement of egocentric ideas, always dangerously strong. Nor should we at this stage make our talk give children the idea that because China or Australia has such and such physical features and climate, therefore its people have such and such modes of life. The contrast between the aborigines and the white settlers in Australia should make us realize the limitations of such ideas. An immense amount depends on the elements of culture that have been brought

by the people to their present home or have been carried to them there. Even the Australian aborigines are by no means entirely the product of their present environment, either physically or socially.

At this early stage the surface features and the climate come in as the setting of the stage on which the story is enacted, and the wise teacher will usually bring in that setting incidentally rather than as a preliminary solid study.

Later on comes the phase at which memory develops and the map can become a joy. The tracing of journeys on a map with notes on the places visited, the remembering of positions of surface features, and the dressing of the surface with winds and rain and sunshine, plant and animal life, becomes possible. Not only can this be done, but the geography lesson can be used as a means of teaching the child to express itself in good English. In the new development of geography we must not forget that we need to learn where places are. Something about relative magnitudes is usefully taught at this stage. If children have access to the *Statesman's Year Book* or some other reference work of the kind, they will be interested to make a list of the ten, or twenty, largest cities of the world, or of some continent or country, in order of magnitude, or to find out in terms of some unit that has meaning to them, how big or how small various other countries are. They will like to try to find out how many days' journey it is to this or that place, and so on. In brief, a quantitative element can be introduced, and then the difficulty of statistics can be suggested. For example, official statistics make Berlin very much larger than Paris, and yet the effective populations do not differ nearly as much.

In their teens, the knowledge gained by the pupils can be set in some sort of order, be it ever so preliminary, and it would be well if examiners realized that a very young mind trying to put in order such intricate complications of information as those with which we deal, must not be expected to be other than crude in the ex-

pression it tries to give to its new power. It should be the power, and not the crudity of expression, that attracts attention, and yet we are in serious difficulties because, in spite of Grundtvig's invaluable apostleship and the example of Denmark's Folk High School, we do so little for the education of people over eighteen beyond the efforts of the Workers' Educational Association. The extension of adolescent education and the development of geography in its sociological bearings in this connection, are important tasks for the near future.

All the time, during school education, our own country and our own district will have been brought in, but there is danger in starting too systematically with this; the more imaginative beginning suggested is less likely to encourage egocentric vanities. The study of the home area must be objective, and the reward is that, if this approach be tried, many a commonplace will become invested with the romance of its story in the past, of its possibilities in the future.

The sixth-form stage is the one in which the pupil is usually awakening to world problems, and here more than elsewhere the teacher should be able to follow a line adapted to the personalities concerned. At this stage comparisons between one people and another can be valuable if the pitfall of judgments of value, based on our own standards instead of on theirs, is avoided. Let us remember, for example, that the Chinese, with no little justice, call Europeans the White Peril, and refer bitterly to the coming of Christianity with its cannons.

This is not the place, and there is not space, for saying more about university work in this subject beyond this one fact that the universities have to try to hammer out, students and teachers together, the philosophy of their subject; and if it be a question of philosophies, in the plural, that is no evil at the present experimental stage. Truth may be one; we look at it through many coloured glasses, from many different points of view; we must not all expect the same vision.

Geography and Nationalism

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I PROPOSE in this short article to confine myself to a single aspect of the value of the geographical approach to the study of modern problems. The whole question of nationalism and internationalism is of crucial importance at the present stage of the world's development, and it is a subject on which clear thinking on the part of the coming generation of all lands is essential to the cause of peace and progress. It is a question which can and ought to be approached from many angles, and I do no more than urge that the geographical view is one which ought to receive much more consideration than it usually does.

We tend to take the nation-state for granted, but in fact the very conception of it appears at a late stage of human history, and it is only in our own time that it has spread, with momentous consequences, from Europe to Western Asia, India and the Far East. Its origin is essentially associated with Western Europe, and no land presents a better field for studying the factors in its evolution than our own. Two circumstances were particularly favourable to its relatively early development in Western Europe and especially in Great Britain: (a) Remoteness from the great danger zone of the open steppe-lands, along which hordes of pastoral, horse-riding folk long continued to pass into South-Eastern and East Central Europe, so that there the evolution of stable, sedentary societies in a given habitat was rendered extremely difficult. (b) The presence in the West of natural and relatively protected 'areas of characterization', within which the social contact of originally distinct cultural and racial groups was comparatively easy and continuity of political organization possible.

Let us glance at certain crucial phases of national development within the framework of Great Britain. In prehistoric and early historic times many varied racial elements arrived and settled in our island: short, dark and long-headed 'Mediterraneans' in the Neolithic, broad-headed 'Beaker' and other Alpine-

Nordics in the Bronze and Early Iron Ages, more definitely Nordic peoples in the period of the Teutonic Settlements. Yet our three sub-nationalities of English, Welsh and Scotch do not closely correspond with any of these racial distinctions. All three peoples are composed of the same racial elements, although these may be blended in somewhat different proportions. The evolution of the three sub-nationalities is associated less with race than with distinctive areas of characterization. That of the English is essentially the scarped lowland east of the highlands of Wales and south of the Pennines, which geographers know as the English Plain. Within it were many natural divisions of relatively fertile and comparatively open lands, separated from each other by broad belts of forest and marsh. These distinctive units tended to be the settlement areas of tribal groups, whether those of the Belgic tribes before the Roman Occupation or of the Teutonic after it. The correspondence is in some cases very close, as in that of the Iceni and the East Angles, both based on the low and distinctive plateau almost enclosed on the landward side by the broad basin of the Fens, the Essex Forest, and the marshy valley of the Stour. A study of a map showing the broad features of the primitive vegetation of England is most illuminating as giving us the geographical *raison d'être* of the so-called Heptarchic Kingdoms. It helps us also to appreciate the subsequent processes of integration by which originally independent units were incorporated within the later 'super-states' of Wessex, Mercia and Northumbria. The real unity of the English Plain was gradually manifested as the forests were cleared, and the marshes drained, but the concept of English as distinct from regional nationalism, e.g. Kentish or East Anglian, was a slow growth, following and not preceding the actual political integration. It was still weak at the time of the Battle of Hastings, but it was a very real and potent force at the time of the Spanish Armada.

Wales, as a distinctive theatre of national life,

began to function from the time when the two wedges of Teutonic influence were thrust through to the western sea-board at the only breaks in the continuity of the uplands which otherwise limit the English Plain: by Wessex to the Bristol Channel Lowlands and by Northumbria to those of South Lancashire and Cheshire. Thenceforth the isolated Welsh Block was the largest and most inaccessible stronghold of the older pre-Teutonic cultural complex which, however, contained many and varied racial elements. Here were retained the distinctive customs and language of the older civilization, while the no less 'Welsh' elements scattered over the English Plain were absorbed into the 'English' nationality which there developed.

Scotland is an even more striking example of the dominance of 'place' rather than 'race' in the evolution of nationality. The Central Lowlands are thrust in between the Highlands and that complex of hill-masses (Southern Uplands of Scotland, Cheviots, Lake Massif, Pennines) which can collectively be called the Central Uplands of Britain. The latter effectually detached it from the English Plain and it became the *milieu* of a distinct national complex composed of at least four originally distinct groups: the Alban Picts of the north, the Dalriadan 'Scots' of the west, the Strathclyde British, whose affinities were with the Welsh, and the Lothian Angles of the same stock and culture as those of the English Plain. Historical circumstances undoubtedly played a great part, and particularly important were the effects of the Danish Conquest of Deira (Yorkshire) in detaching the Lothian Angles from their kinsmen, and of the Norse raids and settlements in the West, which separated the Dalriadan 'Scots' from those of Northern Ireland and gave them an inward orientation towards the Central Lowlands. It was not 'inevitable' that there should be a Scottish nation, but the admirable area of characterization which the Central Lowlands afforded was the indispensable medium of its evolution out of such composite elements and its real *raison d'être*. Centuries of strife and conflict passed, but there came a time when increasing social contact and the growth of common interests made a closer political relationship of the English and Scotch nationalities

desirable, and this was consummated in the Act of Union of 1707. Yet here again the consciousness of a British as distinct from a more regional nationalism ('English' and 'Scotch') lagged behind the actual process of integration, and it was more than a century before the pressure of intimate association and common sacrifices removed the old antagonisms.

Four important points seem to emerge from a study of the evolution of Great Britain as a nationality state, an evolution accomplished in rather more than a thousand years:—

1. That Nationality has been based on place rather than on race.
2. That there has been a natural tendency, through the increase of social contact and the growing economic interdependence of regions, for the growth of larger and larger territorial organizations.
3. That the self-conscious feeling of nationality has correspondingly tended to expand, although lagging behind. A little more than a thousand years ago a Kentishman was conscious of his Kentish nationality and little more. Five hundred years ago he was conscious of being a Kentishman and an Englishman. To-day he is conscious of being a Kentishman (he would like Kent to win the County Cricket Championship), an Englishman and a Briton.
4. That it is possible for sub-nationalities to retain a large measure of autonomy and self-expression within a bigger 'national' unit. As an example may be quoted the considerable degree of self-government which Wales enjoys, the pride in *eisteddfods* and other distinctively Welsh institutions and the many manifestations of a Welsh national spirit.

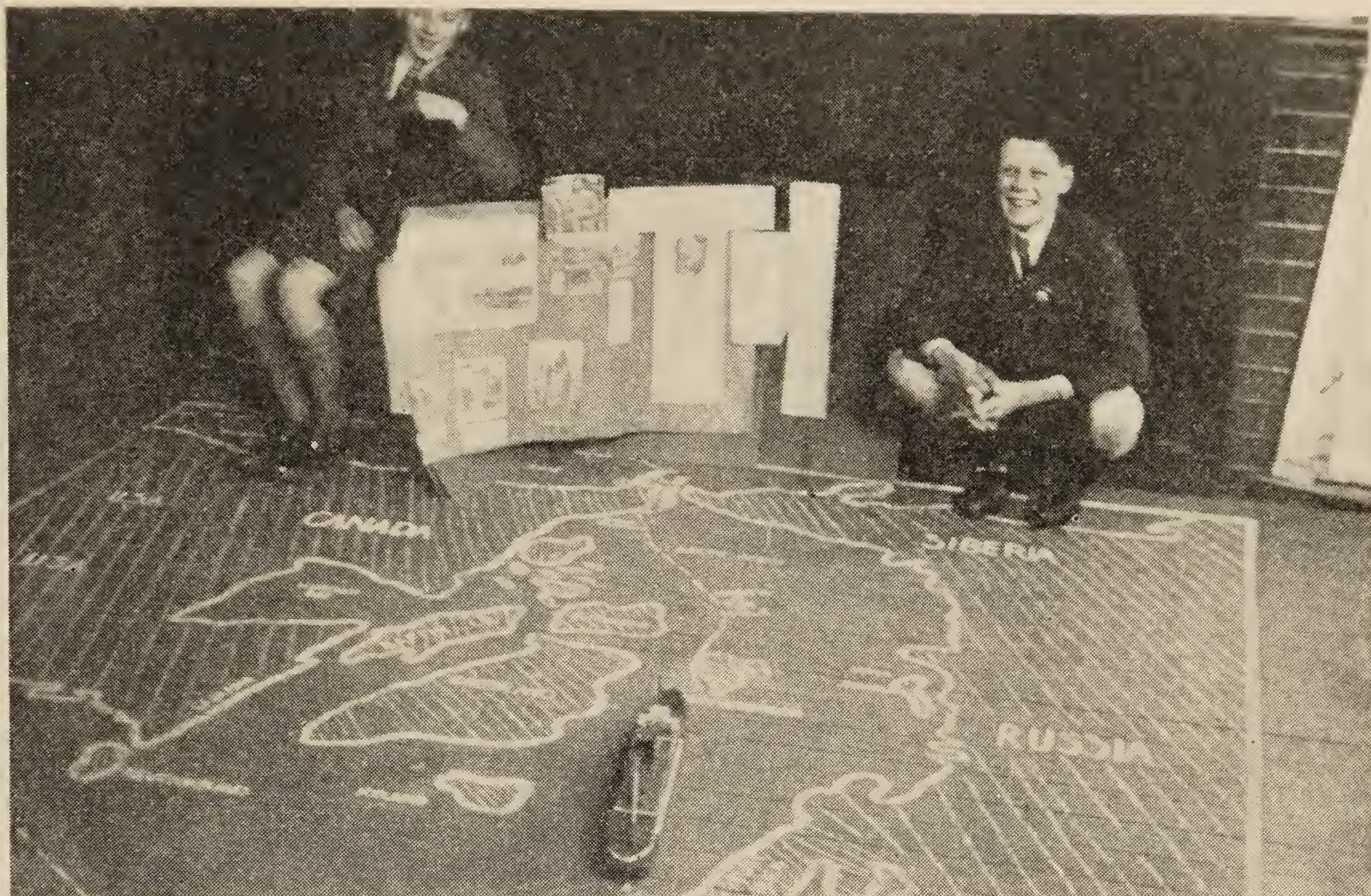
How far are these points applicable to the great problems involved in the political geography of contemporary Europe and Asia? It is an intricate but very illuminating study. Limitation of space forbids more than a bare indication of some outstanding features. In *Mittel Europa*, one of the most discussed of War-time books, Naumann developed the theory of the great super-state as an inevitable phase in the evolution of human societies, com-

parable in the territorial sphere to the big trade combines or departmental stores of the commercial world. In the later stages of the War the Allies became committed to the opposite doctrine of 'the self-determination of national groups', which, for the very reason that it emphasizes the group rather than the land, tends to minimize the importance of the geographical factor in the determination of political units. The theory, as is well known, was by no means completely put into practice by the Peace Treaties, but even so many of the new or re-constituted states were constructed with little regard to the facts of physical geography or the natural trend of economic relationship, which is so largely dependent upon geography. A classical instance is the political and economic disintegration of the great plain-basin of Hungary, ringed by great chains of fold-mountains and drained from every part of the huge arc to the central artery of the Danube. The fact that the ores and timber of the upland margins of Slovakia and Transylvania found their natural markets in the Central Plain, rich in cereals but treeless and practically without minerals, is an example of the economic interdependence of the different regions comprising it. For this and similar reasons it had often been described as a natural 'area of characterization', marked out by nature as 'the seat of a single political unit'. The delay in the process of the intermingling and fusion of elements within what on western analogies should be a natural crucible, could be explained in the light of its history as a terminus of the great steppeland route and of the recency of the arrival of many of its constituent groups.

It is freely admitted that the erection of frontiers with their associated Customs' barriers athwart many natural arteries of trade, and generally the 'Balkanization' of Europe have been responsible for much of the economic suffering and political friction of the years since the War. At the same time few would deny that the concession of self-government to many hitherto oppressed peoples such as the Finns and the Esths has inspired them with new hope and stimulated a real cultural renaissance. Nor can it be doubted that some of the most notable

contributions to European civilization have come from small States such as Denmark, Holland and Switzerland. Moreover, whatever may be the economic advantages of a super-state of *Mittel Europa* proportions, the idea of forcibly including unwilling peoples within it has become increasingly repugnant to our thought. The vital question is, whether it is not possible to reconcile the demands of distinct groups for cultural self-expression and a large measure of autonomy with the imperative need of Europe for greater economic integration. May not the League of Nations be the real alternative to the 'super-state' solution of the problem of European political geography? If disarmament could be secured, frontiers would lose much of their present sinister significance and could be revised when they were shown to be clearly unsatisfactory and provocative. The solution of federalism such as is now proposed for Catalonia and Galicia within the new Spain, could be adopted on a much larger scale, and 'national minorities' in a mixed borderland zone would come to be regarded as bridges from one culture to another. Regional agreements within the framework of the League would restore the economic unity of districts naturally interdependent.

However this may be, the main purpose of this article is to suggest that nationality cannot without great danger be divorced from the conception of place. The natural geographical relations of a region must be considered no less than the aspirations of a particular group within it. Nationalism, to be healthy and constructive, must indeed be based rather on the land than on the group. Just as human personality expands not by emphasizing its own original idiosyncrasies, but by making the utmost use of all its experiences and contacts, so will a progressive nationalism be inclusive of all the constituent elements within its borders, from whatever race or source they have been derived. On this reasoning the new Irish Free State will be inclusive of more than the original Gaelic element in its culture, and the solution of the Arab-versus-Jew problem in the Holy Land be found in the development of a Palestinian nationality inclusive of both.



*Following Sir H. Wilkins in the 'Nautilus'.
A Classroom Map*

*[Trawden Council School,
nr. Colne, Lancashire*



*Man Conquers
the World
by
Agriculture
and
Industry*

*Design by N. C. Blamey
(16½ years)
Pupil at
Holloway School,
London, N.7*

Geography and World Citizenship

CELIA AND FREDERIC EVANS

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THE Great War redirected the conscience and the consciousness of the world towards the problem of conciliation and co-operation. In this work it is perhaps the historians who have been most to the fore. The conception of history as a school subject has, within the last ten years or so, been slowly developing from a purely national to a world conception. This great change is manifest in books, in official publications, in syllabuses, and in teaching.¹ What then of geography?

Geography, as its name implies, is, supremely a world subject. It is surely *the* subject to develop in its devotees an understanding of the world. But it has not always done so. The familiar 'capcs and bays' phase of geography teaching made of the subject a jig-saw puzzle wherein knowledge of situations on a mere outline map was the limited end in view. There was no clear association of the printed form and symbol with the country behind them and with the *people* inhabiting the land concerned. It was factual, unrelated knowledge and distasteful at that. Then geography often came to mean, mainly, the learning of facts about the British Empire. The idea of 'possessions' was emphasized. Misleading Mercator projections were used in the world maps to exaggerate these 'possessions' which were coloured gaudily in red. Often too, this phase of geography teaching laid more stress upon frontiers than upon relief and regions. The 'expansion' theory of progress in a State, so definitely a creed of the nineteenth century, left its mark on ideas in the teaching of geography. The industrial growth of Britain in the same period emphasized the necessity of 'markets' which were visualized mainly as colonial markets or markets in our 'possessions'.

The Great War brought this phase to a close. The tendencies of the colonies towards virtual self-government had their fullest expression in

¹ cf. 'The Teaching of History', *The New Era* for April 1930.

the colonies' co-operation in the War as separate entities and in the peace as separate members of the League of Nations. The fallacy of 'owning' colonies was ended; co-operation rather than competition became the conscious need, if not the conscious aim, of the world. Tariff barriers which tend to separate the nations economically, still, however, exist to interfere with world co-operation as a wholly natural thing. Political interference with trade and commerce is still a disquieting feature in the post-War world, and this tends usually to run counter to the influences operating towards unity. M. Briand's 'United States of Europe' met with philosophical approval but practical opposition. We have yet far to go. In creating a world point of view in these matters, geography is clearly the school subject wherein this can best be done.

In the past, also, geography has been too much concerned in the schools with bringing out the *differences* between peoples rather than the vastly greater number of *likenesses* which exist between them. The schools have been more apt to point out that a negro is black than that he is a man. This emphasis on differences is undoubtedly the main factor in the general failure of geography teaching to produce a world mind. Even the *differences* of culture, of habit, of language, of outlook and so on among peoples can be referred to as giving to the world that necessary variety which means vitality. Each different culture has a core which is common to all humanity—the differences are the contribution of each culture to the common experience and knowledge of mankind. This aspect of the differences in races and nations has not always been sufficiently stressed in the teaching of geography.

This brings us to the next point that knowledge in *itself* is not enough. Knowledge, in itself, will not necessarily give understanding. Still less will it necessarily give sympathy. There

must be present an *emotional* attitude of mind favourable to this understanding and sympathy. The way in which a thing is learned, the way in which it is taught, are of prime importance to its emotional reactions. For instance, we would not trust too freely to the opinion of every Anglo-Indian on the thorny problem of Indian nationalism. The British soldier learning at first hand in France about the French people did not always learn to love them through this closer knowledge. Indeed, the reverse was frequently the case. Different British visitors to the United States will often vary diametrically in their conclusions about the Americans and their estimate of American psychology. It is not the thing seen, altogether, but the attitude of mind of the onlooker that largely decides the conclusion in a matter of this kind. The 'grand tour' did not always prove an effective antidote to an insular point of view. Very often, indeed, it intensified it.

It is thus clear that mere factual knowledge will not give world sympathy. Geography can so easily become the talking of a jargon about coloured shapes on a map or the repetition of words in a book. As Fairgrieve says: 'We must look *through* the map at the country and people beyond. The map is like a pair of binoculars—the more you look *at* it, the less you see; the more you look *through* it, the more you see.'²

Where does this conclusion bring us? How can we teach geography with the right emotional content so as to produce the right reaction of human sympathy? How can we supplant the active idea of competition with a more active one of co-operation? The solution lies in the method of *treatment* in the teaching of geography—a treatment not necessarily producing a *liking* so much as an *understanding* of other people. It is necessary to make this distinction very clear. Too often is it suggested that world conciliation depends on the development of a brotherly love for our 'foreign' neighbours. Rather is it this matter of *understanding* and of an unprejudiced appreciation of the cold facts of the circumstances. World co-operation, far from being a pious desire, is in reality good hard-headed business.

² At the conference of Educational Associations, January 1931

Dr. George Green in his remarkable researches into racial prejudices amongst school children suggests (and he does not claim it as an entirely new suggestion) that the key to the situation is the emphasis upon the idea of there being, for instance, all over the world 'people who do things for us'. Not that India 'produces' so many tons of tea every year, but rather that there are in India people who work in the plantations to produce tea for *us*. We, of course, do something in exchange for *them*, for example, make cotton goods for their clothes. Money acts merely as the convenient medium of exchange to facilitate this barter of goods and services. This attitude in the economic side of geography, consistently followed at school, must result in a very different emotional background towards the people of the world in the children from that which is produced by the study, formally, of imposing statistical abstracts of imports and exports. Here is perceived the fundamental likeness between peoples of different lands—that of service in a world community. The essential oneness of mankind is given its right place. Even if we cannot learn to *love* the worker in the plantation, we can at least learn that he is more a co-operator than a competitor; that he is a practical friend rather than a potential enemy. This is obviously so in spite of his colour, his smell, his hair, his ideas or any other of the lesser differences between him and us. We thus reach a realization of him socially and avoid an anti-social prejudice against him.

At all costs, the fact of world interdependence and the actuality of modern economic co-operation which is essential to modern civilization, must be the basis of geography teaching. That reality of interdependence is there for all eyes to see—yet how few in the world do see it. It needs teachers sympathetic to this interpretation of world conditions. To the dry facts of the blue books must be added the emotional condition of the mind to see them in this human light. Geography must be taught with a consciously social rather than a negative background. The personal influence of the teacher must be of this character, and this is why the teacher's training is of such importance. This is where *The New Era* can carry a new message—and this message is not only a matter of the mind, but also of the heart.

The New Geographic Education

ERNA GRASSMUCK

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PRESENT-DAY geography is the scientific analysis of the inter-relations that do or may exist between the life activities in a given region and the various elements of its natural environment. If a knowledge of the relationships of animal and plant life to the natural environment is essential to a complete geographic understanding of the region, this type of analysis should be included. Thus geography learnings involve the acquisition of accurate concepts of both the human and natural settings, or 'layouts', of the various regions of the world.

How can a teacher of geography or a thoughtful parent aid a child to develop a habit of constructive observation when visiting, or studying at home, a given region of the world? It is well to help him (1) to observe evidences of life—human, plant, animal, in a given landscape; then (2) to seek to discover one or more related items in the natural setting or natural environment that may assist him in understanding why life exists there as it does.

In a given regional study*, the geographically minded person is interested in:—

1. The distribution of people over the area and why the distribution is even or uneven.
2. The clothing, the homes, the foods and means of travel of the people, together with such reasons thereof as may exist in that particular natural environment.
3. The kinds of recreation and the kinds of places where recreations are conducted, together with such possible reasons for these recreations and places as may be discernible in the natural environment.
4. The signs evident in the landscape of various activities: farming, pastoral work, mining and quarrying, logging and lumbering, hunting and fishing, manufactur-

ing and commerce, and related reasons in the natural environment.

5. The relative importance of work and of play in this region and the distribution of these activities through the year, associated with reasons for this importance and distribution as evidenced in the natural layout of the region.
6. The proper adjustment or maladjustment of man to his natural environment.
7. The future utilization by man of the natural environmental elements in this particular region.

When to Use Pictures: It is well to introduce children to a new region by means of a carefully selected collection of pictures and, where appropriate, some specimens. The child's initial concepts are more likely to be correct than they would be if words alone were used in a discussion of the region. An experiment was conducted in the study of the Arabs. In one class, the work dealt only with word matter. At the conclusion the pupils were requested to sketch a picture of an Arab tent. In 90 per cent of the cases a tent was drawn similar to that which the American Indian used on the Plains. (These children had seen such a picture previously in a history lesson.) Five per cent of the children sketched something sufficiently different to indicate that they had at some time seen Arab tent pictures. The other 5 per cent could not express their ideas satisfactorily in sketch form. With another class, pictures of Arab life including tents, were used. In the analysis, 85 per cent of the class drew accurate sketches of the Arab tent, 10 per cent had fairly correct sketches and 5 per cent could distinguish correctly between an Arab and an American Indian tent.

Just how a child is introduced to a new region is highly significant. The promiscuous use of pictures or the use of promiscuous pictures may do harm rather than good. It is therefore vital that at home as well as at school children study

* The technique presented in this article has been evolved in co-operation with Edith P. Parker, Assistant Professor of the Teaching of Geography, University of Chicago, Ill.



Figure A.
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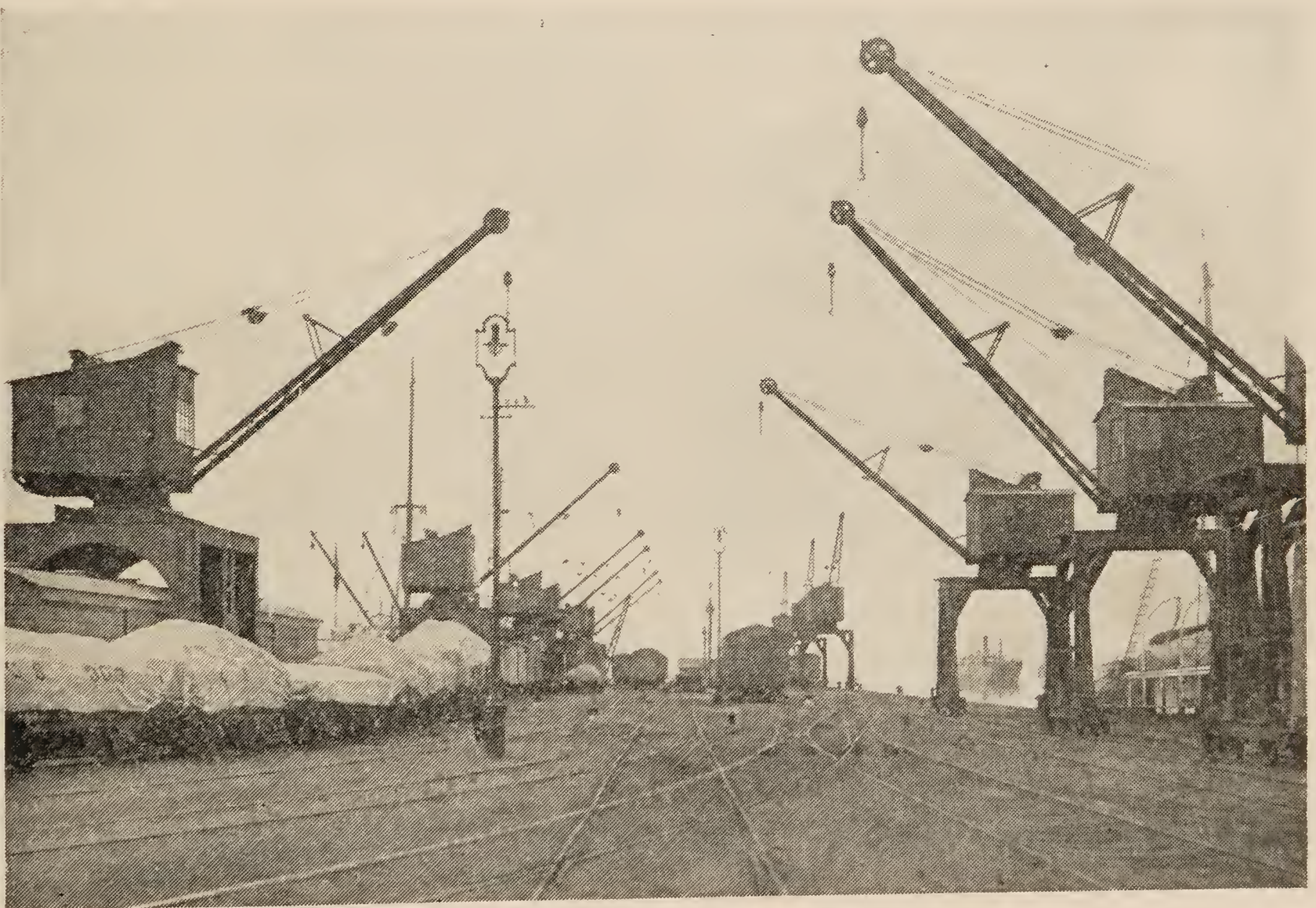


Figure B.

the pictures that are necessary to form a correct concept of a region.

Again, the reading of pictures must always contribute to a learning situation and not be merely a drill exercise. Pictures are also useful in checking the accuracy of children's concepts. This phase will be analysed more fully later.

Kinds of Picture Needed: A teacher or parent who selects pictures for a child's study of a given region—political, economic, or natural—must know the specific 'geographic personality' of the region, namely (1) the prominent items in the human and natural settings, and also (2) the outstanding relationships that exist between these natural and human or cultural items. Unless the collection has been geographically selected, the child may acquire erroneous ideas about the geography of the region. Certain questions can be applied: Does the picture present a feature, activity or condition that exists so frequently that it is essential to a correct understanding of the region's geography? Does the scene present some unique aspect of the region without which one's concept would not be complete? (The Vecchio Bridge across the River Arno, Florence.) When there is a relationship between the dress of a person and the place where it is worn, then such a picture has geographic value.

Interior views of a process or factory have little, if any, geographic value. The geographer desires to know, not so much the *how* of any industry, as *why* the industry is carried on where it is. Another danger in using a process picture is that the scene may have been true ten years ago but may not be to-day.

Various forms of pictures are useful in geographic education—sketches, paintings, snapshots, prints, postcards, lantern slides, stereographs, moving pictures. Pictures from the air are valuable because they give a layout of the whole area. But ground level pictures will still be needed to complete the concepts. The stereography introduces the third dimension but its use is limited to the person holding the stereoscope. The moving picture introduces action but does not replace the still pictures when real analysis is desired. The talking moving picture adds sound stimulation, but in many cases it has not yet given satisfaction.

*Sources for Pictures:** There are numerous sources: geography textbooks and readers; magazines and newspapers, especially Sunday or weekly pictorial sections; advertising pamphlets and exhibits issued by railway and steamship companies; industrial and commercial concerns, banks, Chambers of Commerce, tourist bureaux; bulletins published by Governmental agencies; photographic prints, and other pictures that may be purchased from geographic organizations, museums, commercial photographers and other dealers.

Teachers, parents, globe-trotting friends and the children themselves can be active during their holiday and at other times in assembling pictures which have true geographic quality.

Two major groups of pictures are desirable in progressive geographic teaching.

I Pictures that show one or more human items in a natural environmental setting. This group has high geographical quality in that the given picture presents a human or cultural item and one or more related natural items.

Observe Figure A. The important cultural items in this picture are the terraced rice fields. Here is evidence of terracing by man which is definitely related to the natural item, mountainous topography. Hence at Awatan, Ifugao sub-Province, Mountain Province, Luzon, Philippino Islands, terraced rice fields are related to the areas of mountain relief. Non-terraced parts seem to be related to more resistant rock structures.

II Pictures that present primarily either natural items or cultural items, but not both in the same picture. These items are essential to a correct concept of the geography of the region. In this case, the picture becomes a valuable geographic tool when the teacher, parent or child matches the cultural item picture with another picture showing the natural layout of the region as it is related to a cultural item in the first picture. Thus the child can see the relationship between the cultural item or items in one

* The author will appreciate receiving references to specific agencies in various countries from which geographic pictures can be obtained. A list already assembled will be mailed in exchange.

picture and the related natural item or items in the other picture.

How to Use Pictures: They should be used as the *basis* for *initial* learning, not introduced *after* the unit has been taught. Frequently pictures are necessary so that the child acquires correct concepts of basal terms; for example, a sugarcane field picture would be of distinct value to a child in Birmingham (England), Philadelphia (Penna.) or Toronto (Canada); a worn-down mountain picture to a child in Switzerland; or an aeroplane view of the Amazon forest to a child living in a semi-arid region. On occasions a picture is also useful as a check while reading word matter. Pictures must be selected in relation to the previous experience of the child, who should be allowed to use only that which is valuable in any given study.

At the outset of a study it has been found advisable to have the children observe an apparent cultural item in a geographical picture, then seek related natural items and state the geographic relationship thus discovered. Other geographic relationships may be built from the picture. Next, some cultural item may be observed for which related natural items do not exist in the picture. These cultural items may thus act as the nucleus of a motive whereby the children will search for other kinds of material—maps, word matter or statistics—in their endeavour to solve the problem set up.

Observe Figure B. It is chiefly a cultural picture. Why are cranes of such size and in such number employed at this particular place or site? The canvas-covered railway cars also arouse curiosity. One is urged to search maps, statistics, word matter, to discover the answers, including the name of the place where the picture was taken. Pictures without captions (descriptive titles) force the reader to study the picture closely, so there is distinct teaching value in the non-captioned picture. On occasions captions are necessary so that the views may be located.

Pictures similar but not identical with those used in the initial study may be used in a checking exercise. (1) Suppose a non-captioned picture of potteries in Stoke-on-Trent was shown to a child who has studied the geography of the British Isles. If he has learned well, he can give a meaningful title, properly localized to the

picture. (2) Suppose a collection of non-captioned pictures presenting the outstanding geographic regions of Ireland were made by a teacher or parent. The child to whom it is shown will have learned well the geography of Ireland if, even some weeks or months after his study (a) he can state that the country depicted is Ireland, and (b) he can produce meaningful titles for each picture, and (c) he can observe and state one or more prominent geographic relationships apparent in the pictures. The same method could be used with an economic or work region such as the rice regions of Eastern Asia, or with a natural region such as the rainy low latitude region of South America. (3) Suppose a miscellaneous mass of non-captioned pictures were placed before a child, in which were correct pictures of the geography of South Africa as well as many others not of South Africa. Here the child's mastery would be proven if he could select out of the mass just those pictures which pertain to South Africa and which are essential in a complete understanding of its geography. (4) There is a more difficult test that might be employed. The child must seek for himself all the pictures necessary to depict the geography of, say, the low latitude desert region of South America or the high altitude region of Asia or of Mexico. In this case the child must not only have analysed by means of pictures and probably words and maps, the geography of the region, but also have become familiar with sources where the pictures of these regions can be found.

Some of the folk music, art, poetry and other literature of a region are to a degree also capable of geographic interpretation. One needs geographic ears as well as geographic eyes.

Let the child be trained to observe thoughtfully. Arouse in him a desire to find out why people work and play as they do and to listen to their music, and to aim to appreciate their art and literature so as to understand how they express their feelings. Thus will he be led to acquire worthwhile understandings which will enable him to function more effectively as a local and national citizen, and as an international citizen. At the same time, he will enjoy a fuller, richer and more useful life than would otherwise be possible.

Geography in the Elementary School

V. F. SEARSON, B.A., F.R.G.S.

Author of 'The Physical Basis of Geography'

MODERN education recognizes that towards the age of 11+, the child begins to develop his individuality and to change his attitude towards the subjects taught in school. With this principle in mind, the first 'Hadow' Report advocated the reorganization of the public elementary school system. At 11+, therefore, there is to-day usually a break in the school life of the child.

The career of the average child in the Elementary Schools, on leaving the infants' department, falls into two main periods—the period in the primary school, from 7 to 11, and the period from 11+ to 14 or 15 in some school of more advanced type. At 11 years of age, the child takes an examination which may win a scholarship to a secondary school, where he is expected to remain until he has taken the School Certificate Examination at about 16. For financial reasons or perhaps because he prefers to be able to leave at 15, he may go to a Central School; if, on the other hand, he desires to leave school at 14, he must go to a Senior School. Local facilities, of course, determine his choice.

The Primary School. At this stage no attempt at formal teaching is made, but it is here that the foundation of a child's attitude towards the subject will be laid. Much depends, therefore, upon the teacher's careful selection of subject matter and on the method of teaching adopted. The enquiring child finds new worlds to explore on every side. The geography teacher in the primary school realizes this, and, by judicious teaching, presents the subject so that the child's interest is aroused and his curiosity stimulated but not satiated.

In the examination for free place or scholarship taken at about 11 years, geography is usually excluded, so that in this subject the teacher of the early stage has been free to make his own syllabus. At this age 'human' geography appeals greatly, for children are keenly interested in human beings, their homes and lives. They can understand and compare local conditions with what they hear of other lands.

During the first year in the primary school they study the people in their own locality, and then take imaginary trips round the world to hear how other people live. Similarly, in the following year, they extend their knowledge of home and foreign lands by studying the occupations of the people, and learn something of the flora and fauna of various regions. They are taught something about the winds, rain and seasons, and keep a pictorial record of local weather changes. They learn, also, where and how familiar home objects are produced, and what is sent in exchange for these products.

At 9–10 years of age the child studies his homeland more carefully. Again the human side is emphasized and the people and their work form the major theme. He hears about the great centres and methods of industry; through lessons and personal observation he views the agriculture of his home district, a study later extended to the British Isles. He learns incidentally where places are, and something of the relief of the country, and is introduced in a simple way to the globe and map. During his last year in the primary school, he learns more about the British Isles and the rest of the world by considering the commerce of the homeland, emphasizing possibly Empire trade.

The Senior School. Here a more formal study of geography is begun, and the aim during the next three years is to study world geography, and to cover in increasing detail the regions possibly untouched in the primary school. Clearly there must be close connexion between the primary and post-primary schools so that their schemes of work may be correlated. During the first two years of senior school work, the child studies the continents regionally, and, in the last year, the world, with the British Isles as the centre.

The Central School. Since in schools of this type there is usually a four- or possibly five-year course in geography, the additional time makes wider and more detailed work possible. As in the senior school, the first year's course

includes much human geography, and the break from the primary school is thereby lessened. Frequently, during the last year in the central school, the pupil specializes in some vocational branch of study which may help him in his post-school career, and this may lead to less time being spent in geography. Much, of course, depends on the locality and on the type of work which the boy or girl will undertake in after life. For boys, particularly in the last year, stress is laid on the scientific side of the subject, so that commercial and physical geography and cartography may figure largely. In girls' schools economic, commercial and historical geography are most developed.

From this general outline of the course of geographical teaching given in the three types of elementary school, may be judged how great are the changes which have been made in the course of study in recent years. The study of human geography makes the child feel that it is a live subject, not a mere list of capes and bays, of cotton towns and capitals which must be learnt by heart. India ceases to be a dull peninsula jutting south from Asia, but is the interesting home of those people he heard about the other day; the land whence comes much of the linseed oil for his cricket bat. Southampton is not just called a port, but is the place to which come so many of the large liners of which he has seen pictures—those huge vessels with swimming-pools and theatres in them. The Gold Coast is not merely a coastal land somewhere in Africa, but is the land which sends him cocoa, and is so hot that the people wear cotton clothes; a place where a little boy of whom he has heard, nearly died when lost in the jungle.

Practical and Illustrative Work. In the primary school the child uses blank maps which he can build up in an easy way to show relief, or perhaps simple political, economic or climatic data. He learns to make models of various features of physical geography, and he can use clays, plasticine or paper-pulp in his work—an exercise possibly done in the hand-work lesson. Then there are fascinating pictures to examine; some schools have classified hundreds of postcards and illustrations taken from newspapers and books issued by travel agencies. Again, the geographical section of the school museum may be visited and a boy can actually

handle a club made in Africa, or examine the boll from the plant which helps to make his cotton shirt.

At a later stage, in the senior and central schools, maps become a definite study, and the globe, blank map and models made prove of great value. The children learn how to make a map of a locality of the home area, and map-reading exercises are worked. Interesting experiments are planned to illustrate simple physical phenomena. Newspapers are read for the geography they contain. Accounts of earth movements are noted; the shipping and commercial news show the course of trade, and, sometimes, the route of a ship is followed and its commerce ascertained. Often there is a lantern which shows scenes of life in all parts of the world, or illustrates industries or physical features. The 'film-slide' is proving of great use. This is a device by which some fifty or more pictures are incorporated on one strip of film, and the instrument can be used to show any part of the film as a stationary picture. It is quick in operation, is easily stored, and can be used in a comparatively light classroom. In some schools the epidiascope is of service; in others the film projector is used so that moving pictures of educational value can be seen. Yet again interesting lessons are heard on the wireless, with stories and descriptions of places and customs told by people who have first-hand knowledge. Then the pupil will express what he has heard, in writing, in drawing, or in making a model. In all these studies he uses a globe and an atlas. Lectures are sometimes given by people from outside the school, and geographical topics are discussed at meetings of the school society.

School Visits. It has become increasingly possible for schools to make visits to regions of geographical interest; history, nature-study, languages and art also benefit from these excursions. Funds are raised by various means in the school, and the children are encouraged to save over a period. Vacation journeys to northern Europe at a few pounds per head are sometimes made, and the less ambitious pay visits to parts of the British Isles at a lower cost. On other occasions excursions are made to places of local importance. These journeys in reality are organized and prepared studies. The route is planned, mapped and discussed beforehand,

and the children make notes on what they see *en route* for an essay upon their return to school. Many subjects benefit, and the children, trained to observe and investigate, gain by direct contact a sympathetic appreciation of the life, difficulties and views of other people.

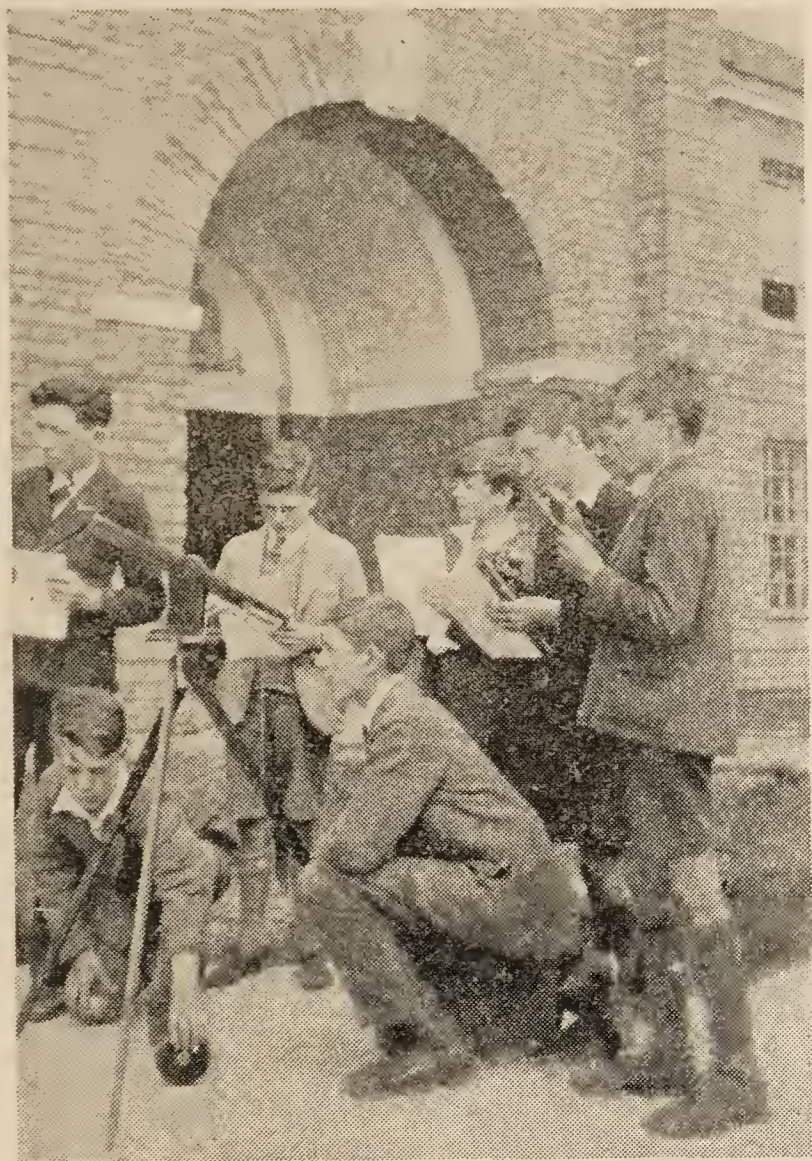
Geography in the Curriculum. It is generally agreed that geography has gained by the re-organization of the schools, and is now receiving more of the attention which its importance deserves. The new post-primary elementary schools are usually staffed by teachers trained in modern methods and with a broad view of education. A new conception of the study of geography has gradually been evolved. Mercifully, the senior and central schools have no narrow tradition to hinder their progress, and hence they have a great opportunity to experiment in education. They are not limited by a Public Examination Syllabus, nor have they the necessity of preparing a number of scholars for the School Certificate, though in some central schools such examinations are taken. It may truly be said that the senior and central schools are making much of their opportunities. Though sometimes hindered by lack of money, they have done much to develop modern methods in teaching. In their brief career they have indicated lines of progress which have subsequently been taken up and extended by secondary schools, which frequently have a stronger financial position.

Teaching Method. Post-primary elementary schools have made much use of individual work amongst scholars. With a view to developing character and individuality, and to some extent affected by the commencement of vocational training in the last year of the pupil's career at school, much of the preparation is done, under guidance, by the pupil himself. By this method the teacher's part is to organize the individual studies and to suggest sources of information. The student, working on a modification of the Dalton plan, assigns to himself a certain amount of work to be done each week. The finished work is examined and corrected by the teacher, who then discusses it with a small group of students. By this method a bright pupil can proceed at a faster rate than the less able; a general level

being kept by aiming at a fixed minimum of work for each week. The able child can extend his studies outside the fixed minimum prescribed in the syllabus and make much use of the geographical section of the school library. The result certainly is that the student gradually acquires a geographical sense; something which is really his own and which will help to develop his individuality.

Local Survey Work. Many of the post-primary schools carry out local surveys, which are incorporated either in map work or in the regional study of a given area. The region, usually in the neighbourhood of the school, is analysed thoroughly, and models and charts are made. Some schools to-day are engaged in surveying the home area for the Land Utilization Survey of Britain. The crops grown, the nature and use of the land and similar information are entered on a six-inch map which will form part of the whole survey. The children gain experience in the real use of maps with an intimate knowledge of the home area, and find that their project has some definite value in the world outside the school.

The Importance of Geography. It is undeniable that geography in the elementary school is of great value. From these schools will pass the majority of the men and women of the future, and it is vital that they should start life equipped with a sympathetic understanding of the world, its peoples and its problems. Children who have visited the Continent, ought to retain for life a greater sympathy for the country they have seen than for any other foreign land. Even if the school journeys have been confined to the home country a greater understanding is developed. The more thorough the teaching of world geography, the greater will be the understanding of world problems. The children will have formed the habit of looking at things from a geographical viewpoint; of picturing a land as made up of many parts, each being an integral part of the whole. If the elementary schools succeed in giving such a geographical outlook to their scholars they will have gone far in their task of preparing the child of to-day for his citizenship of to-morrow.



Group Work with Theodolite made by the Boys
[Bierton Road School, Birmingham]



Finding Width with a Plane Table made by the Boys
[Bierton Road School, Birmingham]



Mapping a Racing Track with the Aid of a Plane Table

Geography in Secondary Schools

A. BOOKER, B.Litt. (Oxon.)

Geography Mistress, Holloway School, London

IN secondary schools in England we are chiefly concerned with boys and girls who come to us at the age of ten or eleven and remain until they are sixteen or seventeen, though some of them extend their schooldays until they are eighteen or nineteen years old. They come to us almost entirely from elementary or private schools, and have had some instruction in geography before they come.

In spite of all suggestions to the contrary, we are still mainly dominated in our work by the desire of the pupil, the teacher, the inspector, and the Local Education Authority, to get as many people as possible through the General School (or School Leaving) examination. To many struggling secondary school pupils the possession of a Matriculation Certificate seems the sign and seal of a completed education, and in this education geography plays its part. To others with a wider outlook (or it may be, more money and opportunity) the passing of a matriculation examination is a gateway to further adventures in education, and they stay on at school for two or three years longer, and perhaps pass a Higher School examination, generally equivalent to an intermediate university examination. Here geography again can play its part.

So we are preparing two sets of pupils—the first and far the larger section must leave school at sixteen or seventeen and earn their living. The second section may be sub-divided into those who must earn their bread at the age of eighteen, and those who can continue their education at a university. Bearing this in mind, why do we bring geography into the curriculum? What aims have we in preparing our pupils for life when we teach them geography?

To most geographers who have trained at a university, geography is one of the joys of life. When we travel, the land shows us so much that is hidden from the non-geographical tourist; when we read of foreign lands, we have a scientific background for the facts we are absorbing; when we try to tackle the outstanding

problems of our own land, and its relation to other lands, the whole tangled skein of international commerce and politics, we instinctively look to geography to help us to solve the difficulties that lie so obviously before us and to help us to understand our neighbours.

But how much of this feeling of joyous adventure, of scientific background, of a basis of international understanding, can we impart to our pupils? It is difficult to say, but something must be done towards it if the world is to be united in sympathetic development in this democratic age.

In view of the crowded curriculum of most schools to-day, few secondary teachers have more than two, or at the most three, periods a week devoted to geography. It is an expensive subject to equip, for the world changes so rapidly; boundaries are altered, railways built, canals cut, oil fields opened up, air-ways established, and so on, until no textbook remains up to date for long; no school atlas is really satisfactory after a few years. And they are not cheap to replace. Further, wall maps are essential, and who can do without pictures of every description? One might enlarge the list for some time, when one thinks of models, globes, library books, lantern slides, geological, industrial and plant specimens, and all the paraphernalia of map-making. So that some schools give up the teaching of this expensive subject when pupils reach the age of fourteen or fifteen to the incalculable loss of the children. For who can intelligently read a newspaper (to place it on a low scale) or draw up a Peace Treaty (to place it on a rather higher scale) without a knowledge of geography? I would put it even more strongly; who can be an intelligent citizen to-day without some knowledge of geography?

How then are we to deal with this subject of very wide content in our secondary schools? It is generally possible to work up a four- or five-year plan to include the School Leaving Certificate; followed (in some cases) by a further, more

specialized two-year plan to include the Higher Certificate. The first few years must supply the pupil with his geographical tools. He must perforce learn hard facts, though not now-a-days in the form of lists of capes and bays and counties and their capitals. Yet many names must be learnt, and the pupil must realize that there is some good reason for learning them.

Geography has a two-fold appeal to pupils of school age; it deals with solid facts which no amount of argument can alter, e.g. the position of London or New York or any other large town, or the relief of a land. This side of geography appeals to those whose memory is quick and retentive. But it also deals with arguments, e.g. *why* does dense Equatorial forest persist in the Amazon Basin; *why* is Antarctica so ice-bound? There is no end to the vista led up to by these two avenues of approach. Generally speaking, younger pupils prefer hard facts, while older ones prefer speculation and argument. Both are necessary and complementary. Most textbooks are written to cover these two sides.

Moreover, geography has its appeal to those who work mainly with their minds as well as to those who work mainly with their hands. In the case of many pupils, both minds and hands work together most satisfactorily, but most geography teachers have struggled vainly with pupils whose ideas of map-work never result in more than inky streaks and odd shapes laboriously labelled 'The Relief of Australia' or something equally unlikely. But maps are essential to geography, and to many, a map is a real delight for the ideas it calls up or even for the strange names printed thereon. All pupils (artistic or not) should therefore have plenty of practice in producing maps, perhaps traced, perhaps drawn freehand; better still, if possible, actually made on the land. A really well-executed map is a pride to the producer and a joy to the beholder.

All schools provide for a study of the homeland, generally in a simple form, near the beginning of the course and again in a more detailed fashion later on. In a country school much can be done on the land to make such a study more real to the pupils. In a town the difficulties of practical map-making or of geographical excursions are almost insurmountable. But the town school may have its compensations

in the form of museums, pictures and so on which are beyond the reach of the country school. For instance, the Imperial Institute in London is a never-failing source of interest to geographical parties.

No amount of textbooks, atlases, pictures and talk can teach geography as adequately as travel. It is essential that the teacher of geography should travel as often, as widely and as intelligently as possible. It is highly desirable that as many as possible of his older pupils should travel too. Hence the inestimable value of school journeys, exchanges of pupils from other lands, scout and girl guide camps and all the organizations which help people to see something of places other than their own immediate surroundings. Even so, travel is beyond many people, and in this case pictures must be a substitute. Many daily papers produce beautiful geographical pictures (especially *The Times*) from which a geographical collection can be built up at little cost.

During the five-year course the geography of the world should be covered in outline. This involves primarily a knowledge of the relief, climate, vegetation and natural regions of the great land masses. Upon this basis can be built up a knowledge of the peoples and their lives: how they are occupied and why they carry on these occupations; how the main products of the world are procured and how they reach their markets; the value to nations of coal, oil and water power; the dependence of the world on minerals, precious and otherwise; the development of towns; of manufactures and means of transport; finally, the division of the world into political units, and their varied importance, should be studied. All these form intensely interesting and highly necessary subjects for discussion. I would deliberately put political divisions at the end, but in many cases it may not be practicable.

Fortunately, one can work much so-called physical, practical, and economic geography together in a pre-matriculation course. Later on, more differentiation can reasonably be made.

Fortunately again, one can study *relatively* simple regions such as Australia and South America near the beginning of the course, and finish with the complications of Europe and Asia near the end. A possible scheme would

be as below:—

- I Year—British Isles
- II Year—Australia, New Zealand and Africa
- III Year—North and South America
- IV Year—Europe and Asia
- V Year—World revision with special emphasis on British Isles, Europe and North America.

Space forbids a discussion here of books and atlases.

For the later two-year course any Intermediate or Higher School syllabus gives a reasonable choice of work, allowing for considerable elasticity of method. Throughout the whole course I would emphasize the fact that geography is a subject that lends itself to individual work on the part of pupils. The natural bent of the teacher is bound to be reflected in the type of geography taught at a school, but he need not always be actively teaching it. Boys and girls generally prefer to read rather than to be taught. There is always a chance that geography may become ultra-mathematical or statistical on

the one hand or that it may lose its scientific basis and become merely descriptive on the other. The skilful teacher has to steer between these two dangers and to remember that the ultimate aim of geography teaching in secondary schools is to give the pupil a sympathetic and scientific understanding of the world in which he lives, of the people among whom he works, and of those whose lives are widely sundered from his own.

There need be no antagonism between the scientific and the humanistic approaches to geography. Some teachers will emphasize the importance of rocks and landforms, climate and soils, map-projections and mathematical calculations; others will concentrate their attention on peoples and their lives and works, their crops and manufactures, their towns and means of transport. The ideal thing is to hold the balance evenly, and by studying man and his surroundings together, to strive to bring about better understanding among the peoples of the earth.

Training for World Citizenship

C. W. JUDD

WITHIN the Secretariat of the League of Nations in Geneva there has now been established an Educational Information Centre. It should act as a clearing-house of information upon the methods used in every country to teach boys and girls the essential facts concerning both the recent growth of international interdependence and the beginnings of world organization through the League of Nations, as well as habits of co-operation with peoples of other lands. In August, Dr. Kullmann, the newly-appointed Director, is to take a leading part in a Summer School for Teachers, arranged by the League of Nations Union in co-operation with the Geneva Institute of International Relations, to study some of the problems of training for world citizenship.

In England, most Local Education Authorities and teachers are by now agreed that it is the proper work of the schools to provide such training: nevertheless, the ordinary teacher still finds it difficult to know how League teaching can best be given—not, indeed, as a separate subject in the timetable, but as an integral part of existing studies. The Education Committee of the League of Nations Union, on which the New Education Fellowship and the professional organizations of teachers are represented, has therefore

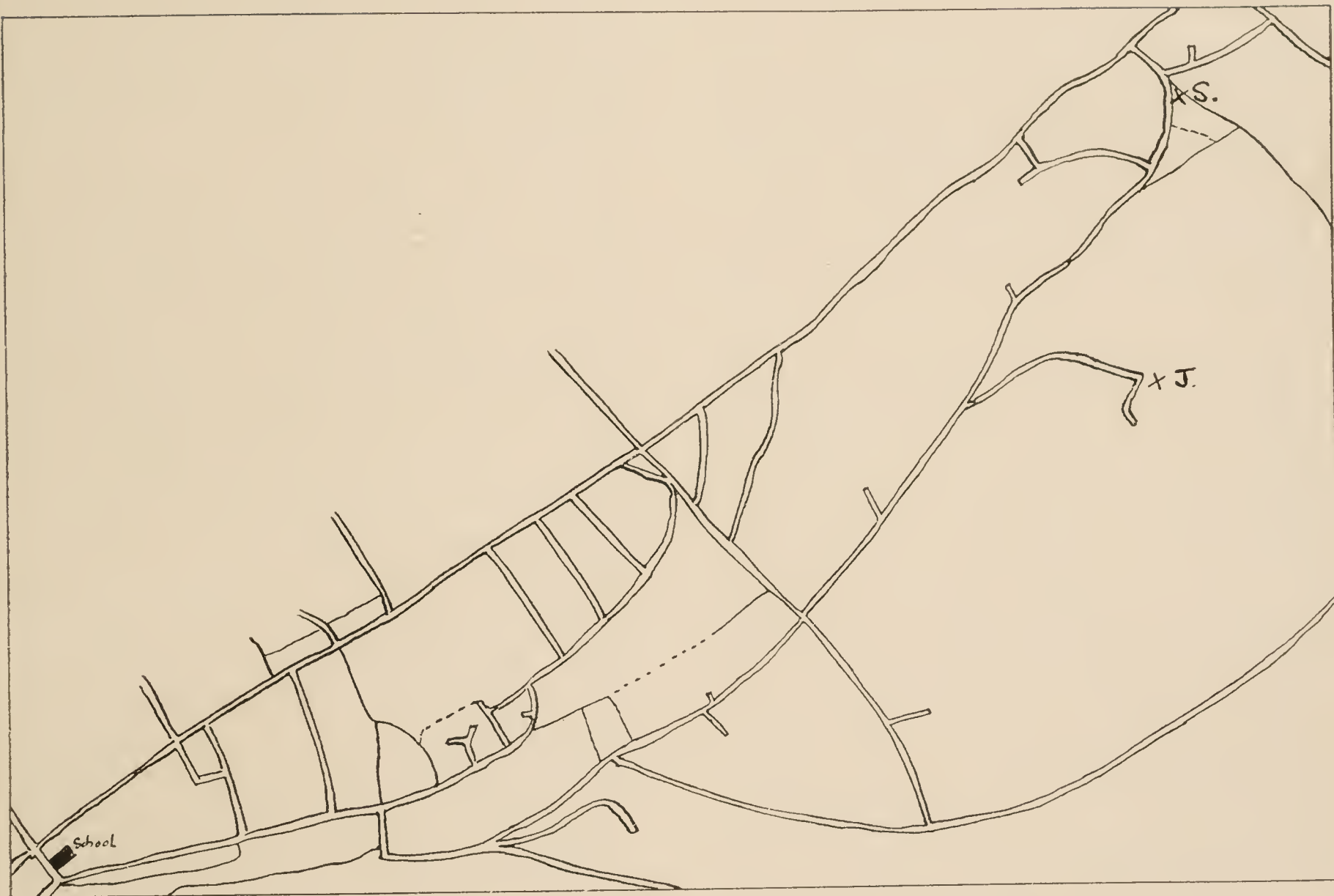
decided to establish a Curriculum Committee. It is hoped that the new Committee will formulate and publish suggestions which will be of value to all who wish to give instruction in the aims and activities of the League and to develop a sane spirit of world citizenship through the usual subjects of the curriculum. The Committee will be advised by a series of Subject Panels, one panel being appointed for each of the following subjects: history (including civics); geography; languages and literature; the arts; science and mathematics; physical education and hygiene.

The Union is particularly anxious to have the names of teachers who are already doing original work along these lines in order that they may be invited to place their experiences at the disposal of one or other of the advisory panels. It is hoped that the new Committee will from time to time provide material for publication in *The New Era* and, in order that the various panels may be constituted with as little delay as possible, readers are invited to suggest the names of suitably qualified teachers who would be willing to serve. Names should be sent to the Secretary, the League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1, who will be glad to give further information about the work of the Union and of the Geneva Summer School referred to above.

The Treasure Hunt

A Saturday Afternoon 'Ploy'

at Southlands School, Exmouth, S. Devon



This is a reproduction of the map (scale: 6 inches to 1 mile) that was put into the hands of all the girls of Southlands one Saturday afternoon. It shows roads, lanes and footpaths within a radius of four miles of the school; the school; and the hiding-place of the treasure for both junior and senior girls. No names were given, and the children had to find their treasure without any further aid. It was a most popular 'ploy', and gave excellent practice in map-reading.

XS is the hiding-place of the seniors' treasure, and XJ that of the juniors.

The New Geography

E. D. LABORDE

Head of Geography Department, Harrow School; Chairman of the Public Schools Group of the Geographical Association; author of The Cambridge Geographical Series, Popular Map Reading; editor of A Geography of Western Europe

IN the minds of most of those who are old enough to be parents of boys at a public school, geography is not a branch of learning at all, but one of those boxes of information which only the weak-minded seek to acquire, and which the sensible man keeps at hand for timely use in works of reference. Its value as a school subject in our young days is aptly phrased by the late C. E. Montague, who describes it as a 'pedantic harri-dan who used to plague the spirit of youth with lists of chief towns, rivers and lakes, and statistics of leather, hardware and jute!' The writer might have added capes and bays, for our old system of geographical teaching was a legacy of the age of the great discoveries, when the navigator, butting his way along an unknown coast, past a succession of headlands and bights, found a knowledge of the successive points of the coastline a valuable part of his equipment.

The system of lists intended to be memorized had another value in the dominie's eyes. It enabled the form master—a sciolist perforce, whose business was to teach everything the boys were supposed to learn—to 'hear' his lesson with ease to himself and a wholesome dullness to the boys. Anyone could set half a dozen pages of hard and mostly useless facts and duly test their preparation. Thus, young Smith was given an appearance of acquaintance with other lands and would not be stumped when submitted to the parental test on dates and place-names, which occurred so regularly during the holidays. Mr. Smith had long forgotten the smattering of Greek and Latin which he had picked up at school, but he could ply Tommy with questions on the date of the Armada, the position of New York, and the products of Calcutta. Should Tommy evince complete ignorance, Mr. Smith might begin to wonder what return he was getting for the high school fees he was asked to pay, and might even plague his son's headmaster with awkward remarks about the curriculum or

the pedagogic skill of the staff. Wary headmasters accordingly devoted an odd hour or two to geography as a concession to the folly of some parents.

In the great world outside the schools and universities there had been mutterings of a change of view towards geography since the days of Ritter and Humboldt; but so low had the prestige of the study fallen that its share in the rapidly progressive acquisition of knowledge during the nineteenth century was preyed upon by the physicist, the chemist, botanist, and zoologist, besides many other -ologists, and even by the historian. In truth, the discovery of new information proceeded so fast towards the end of the last century that there was no time to assimilate and systematize. Geography lay disorganized, a ready prey for all and sundry who cared to rend off pieces from it. The beginning of the twentieth century saw the rise of the scientist-geographer and the introduction of physical geography into the schools. This was certainly a step forward, but it had its drawback in the stress laid on purely scientific detail of little value to the geographer. And it obscured the fact that man is the primary study of geography. The great merit of the development was the firm foundation it laid for the scientific basis on which all real geographical research must build. The older universities and the public schools stood conservatively and contemptuously aloof from this new-fangled stuff, but the newer colleges and presently the secondary schools of the Board of Education took readily to it, since their vision was unimpeded by the mist of prejudice and narrow tradition.

Then came the War. Campaigns in distant lands proved the usefulness of a knowledge of regional geography, duties in the field brought home to thousands of men the real value of topographical appreciation. For the first time the large-scale map entered the ken of many who

had previously been unaware of its existence or unable to use it. Business exigencies and the upheaval of trade and commerce emphasized to the merchant the necessity for some acquaintance with the rudiments of economic geography. Then, when the struggle closed and treaties of peace remained to be made, the principles of frontier-making together with the economic and racial problems involved, forced themselves only too clearly on the general public in these islands. After the period of demobilization, practically the whole of the junior staff of every Public School consisted of men who had had a first-hand experience of geographical problems in the field, and were able to take a personal interest in the geographical problems which subsequently arose in the Council Chamber.

Hence, geography entered the Public Schools. Slowly it penetrated and with much opposition from the older members of the staff and suffering from the absence of sympathy in headmasters; but it has found a footing in all except the most crabbed and backward of schools. The difficulties of its promoters were enormous. There were vested interests to be overcome. On staffs with a limited number of men there was little room for a geography master; the plums of scholarship and exhibition went to boys who studied other subjects; textbooks of reasonable standard, interest and outlook were lacking. Above all, there was still a general misconception of the subject. Prejudice against it lingered, and lingers still, among the generation to whom it had meant so little at school. Housemasters steered their boys from it, parents when appealed to decided against it, and the boys themselves regarded it as a subject only to be studied after signal failure at everything else.

In spite of these obstacles, the new geography has made considerable headway. Cambridge has established a Tripos in the subject, and has recently appointed a professor in it, while Oxford is about to set up an honour school in it, to save her products from being cut off entirely from certain careers. In the Public Schools geography has come to stay, largely through competition between these older foundations and the newer secondary schools.

One of the first tasks of the post-War geography master at a Public School was to clarify his ideas about his own subject. About

his main aim he had no doubt. To him geography was the study of man in his natural surroundings. To achieve this object, he was forced to build on a foundation of other sciences. The problem lay in the selection to be made from the scientific basis. How much was he to keep; how much was he to reject? The solution was all the more difficult because of the pre-War tradition of physical geography. If he delved deeply into the basic sciences, he was told that geography was not a subject at all, but merely a number of subjects badly taught. If he selected more sparingly, he was taunted with superficiality. But by dint of patience and thought, he has gradually arrived at something like a satisfactory definition of the ground covered by his subject.

To hold its place, geography, like any other branch of study, must fulfil three conditions. It must provide a body of useful knowledge, offer machinery by which the mind can be trained, and, above all, perhaps, it must inspire the spirit of culture. That geography does provide a wealth of useful knowledge does not require demonstration, and besides, the utilitarian aspect does not greatly appeal to schoolmasters, Business men, whether shippers, wholesale dealers with large foreign connexions, importers of food supplies, or exporters of manufactured goods, know full well the advantage of a sound knowledge of overseas lands and markets.

As a training for the mind the new geography has special advantages owing to its two-fold aspect as a science and a humanity. The chain of causation leading up to the distribution of rainfall over the earth's surface, and thence to the density of population in various localities, and to certain modes of life, requires close, clear thinking. The causes of the seasons, the sequence of day and night, and the differences of time with latitude, all bring out the same qualities as are educed by mathematics, while enjoying the advantage of being real problems set by Nature. No research is a better wit-sharpener than the local survey designed to call attention to and explain the geographical circumstances.

For example, in a study of the Harrow district one wonders why, in the general erosion of the clay layer of the area, one particular lump should remain to form the Hill. Examination of the

summit reveals a lingering remnant of the Bag-shot sand which once overlaid the Thames basin, and this find leads to the conclusion that the hill is merely a gigantic earth-pillar. Or again, one notices on the Ordnance Survey map that on one side of the hill the streams have breaks varying from two to four hundred yards in length, a curious fact in a clay district. Evidently, a porous stratum must lie here, and a visit to the ground proves this hypothesis to be correct.

Efficient though it may be as a mind-trainer, the new geography is to the Public School master an instrument of culture, a study which may elevate the mind and be a joy in life. What the artist gets from a beautiful landscape is also attained by the trained geographer, though in another way. He sees the hand of nature everywhere and appreciates comparisons and contrasts between the scenes he visits. The pleasure thus obtained is difficult to express, but anyone who will peruse Collet's *Changing Face of England*, C. E. Montague's *The Right Place*, or Hilaire Belloc's *Pyrenees*, will understand what that pleasure can be. Consider how much more these writers got from travel, whether at home or abroad, than the average mortal! They were, of course, geographers born, not made; yet an education in the new geography will do much to bring the average man or woman within measurable reach of the same enjoyment.

Then there are the great world problems which fall most properly within the sphere of geography. The clash of civilizations in China, the development of Australia or Patagonia, quarrels over water rights between Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and Egypt—all these have a large geographical element, and their conditions can be understood and their problems solved only by trained geographical thought. When combined with history, geography as now understood provides subjects for discussion of

the most enthralling interest. The part played by the Rhone Valley in the growth of civilization in Europe may be obscured by the mists of time, but the rôle of the Hudson-Mohawk gap in the development of the United States has been enacted before the eyes of the last four generations.

Looked at in this light, geography is a study worthy of the highest intelligences. It is not a 'grocer's subject', full of mere bread and butter topics, but one conducive to breadth and accuracy of thought and to the elevation of the mind. It is at least a social science, and at best a whole system of philosophy.

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Translated by BARBARA LOW

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Geographic Thinking

LUCY SPRAGUE MITCHELL

Engaged in Research into Experimental Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools in New York City

IT would be interesting to know what the word 'geography' summons up to each particular reader who glances at this article. Is it an abstract idea, expressed by an imaginary line that girdles the earth? Here there is no image of a real thing. If there is an image at all, it is of a highly symbolized diagram. There is no flesh and blood experience behind it. The equator or a longitude is related only to thinking. Or does 'geography' summon up shapes—Italy shaped like a boot, North America with its great Alaskan knob and streamer of islands? Again, no image except of a formal symbol taken from some map. The images that come from experiencing Italy are little walled hill towns, ruins of the past, peasants, modern social demonstrations. You never see or experience the boot in Italy! Or does 'geography' mean a mass of more or less unrelated facts—the location of Shanghai, the height of Mount Everest, the exports of the United States? There may be haunting images on the fringe of these associations. But it is only a chance if these facts happen to be more or less related to something you once did or saw.

These are geographic facts and valuable, all of them, in their own place. But that place is certainly not with young children nor is it in the first stage of geographic thinking. There is an earlier kind of geographic thinking that is built on experiences, on first-hand observations, and which evokes eye and ear and muscle images so vivid that they demand active expression. There is a geography which may begin at four years old, perhaps younger, and can be pursued in a way which capitalizes a child's method of learning: the method, I mean, of exploring the world through his senses and his legs, and the reliving of his experiences through play. Such a geography curriculum affords, I believe, appropriate activities for young children, and leads to habits of observation and of thinking and of expression which are basic to future geographic and historical work.

Geography, like charity, should begin at

home. And for the simple reason that that is where the child begins. The widening from the simple concrete domestic world of the three-year-old with himself as the centre and all the rest lying vaguely on the periphery, to the impersonal universe or abstract figures and conceptions of a scientist, is a matter of growth—a slow and gradual tying in of facts which are met in the ever-widening circles of experiences. The ability to tie in more and more complex facts constitutes growth in thought. For thinking is seeing relationships.

We use the word 'environment' casually, and usually with the feeling that what surrounds one constitutes one's environment. But what one finds is only half one's environment; what one brings to it equally determines the environment. Two students recently made observations from the same street corner in New York City on any facts related to the road. One of them brought in a report which centred upon unemployment. The other counted the seventy-four openings which she could see in sidewalk and street indicating the use the city made of under the street. In passing that same street corner with a six-year-old school group, I asked if any child knew what street it was. Joan said promptly, 'My aunt's street!' The external environment was the same. What each brought with her made the difference, the relationship which each was able to see between that street corner and some other parts of the world. We are the sum total of the relationships that we are sensitive to—not the sum total of the facts we know. The building of significant relationship is consequently of supreme importance.

There are no more fundamental relationships than those between the earth and the human beings who live on it. The study of what the earth gives or enforces on people and what people in turn give or enforce on the earth is human geography. This is a comparatively new word in our educational vocabulary. But the relationships between earth and human beings are as old as men themselves. A child's interest in

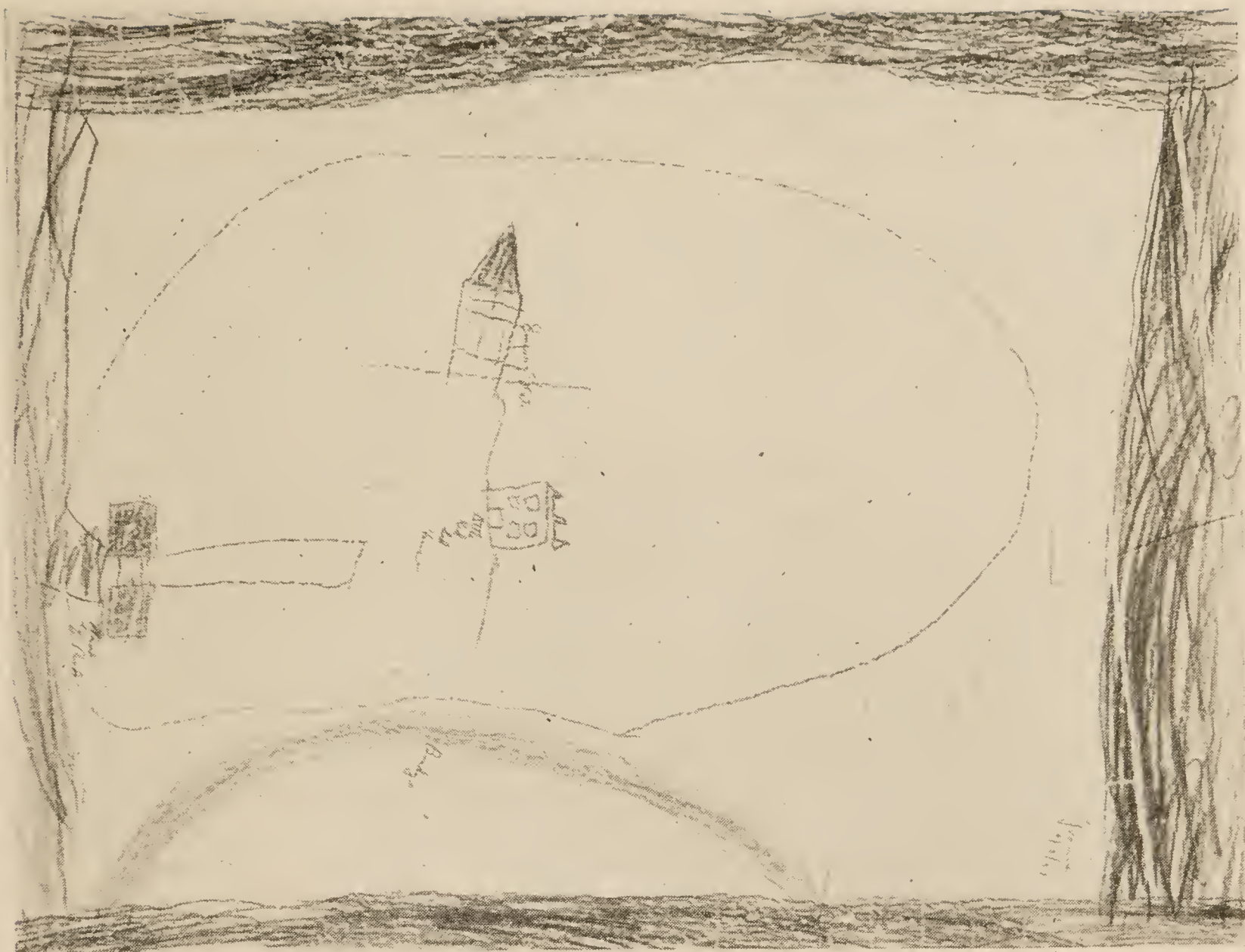
food will at first be related only to his mother or a bottle; it will widen to his kitchen, to the relation between the grocery and his kitchen, between the grocery horse and the grocery, between the grocery and the city market, between the market and the farmer, until some day we find it expanded into an economic interest in the nation's food supply. In a State school in New York where a group of us are allowed to conduct an educational experiment, our geography curriculum for children between four and eight years of age is based upon a sequence of actual trips which acquaint them with these relationships between the familiar and narrow world which they have already got tied into their own lives and the larger world which the adults around them are expressing through work. We feel our trips are successful just to the extent that they help the children to widen or deepen the sense of some significant relationship or give them vivid images which they can later draw upon. I once took a group of city six-year-olds to Gansvoort market where we saw the vegetable lorries and wagons driven in by the farmers from outlying farms. One farmer told the children how he brought his lorry across the ferry in the early morning while it was still dark, and how the market was still lighted by the street electric lights when the store buyers came. Finally he gave us some of his unsold turnips. The children were wildly excited to see a 'farmer'. I wish I knew what image had previously lain back of that word! Certainly they had not expected a farmer to look like a man! And later when I asked them where the farmer got his turnips, the brightest child answered: 'From the A. and P. Grocery Store!' There were so many evidences that these city children could not understand the relationships connected with plant growth without a direct experience, that we have put a month in the country on a farm into our curriculum for six-year-olds. When Rosalind first saw the minnows in the lake she screamed: 'Look at the live sardines!'

This difficulty in handling relationships that have behind them no images based on experiences, is still evident at eight years of age. When I showed a group of eight-year-olds a large map of the United States which was painted so as to suggest mountains and plains, fertile and dry areas, and asked where they would plant crops

or vegetables, Gaby picked out a half-desert in Nevada. Because, as she explained, 'It looks empty and what you need is a big empty lot'. Tom chose a green patch in the Mississippi Valley. A violent discussion followed. Most of the children agreed that you couldn't raise vegetables there because the grass took up all the room. Suddenly, a new relationship burst upon Jannette and she announced, 'Perhaps that's why they plough!'

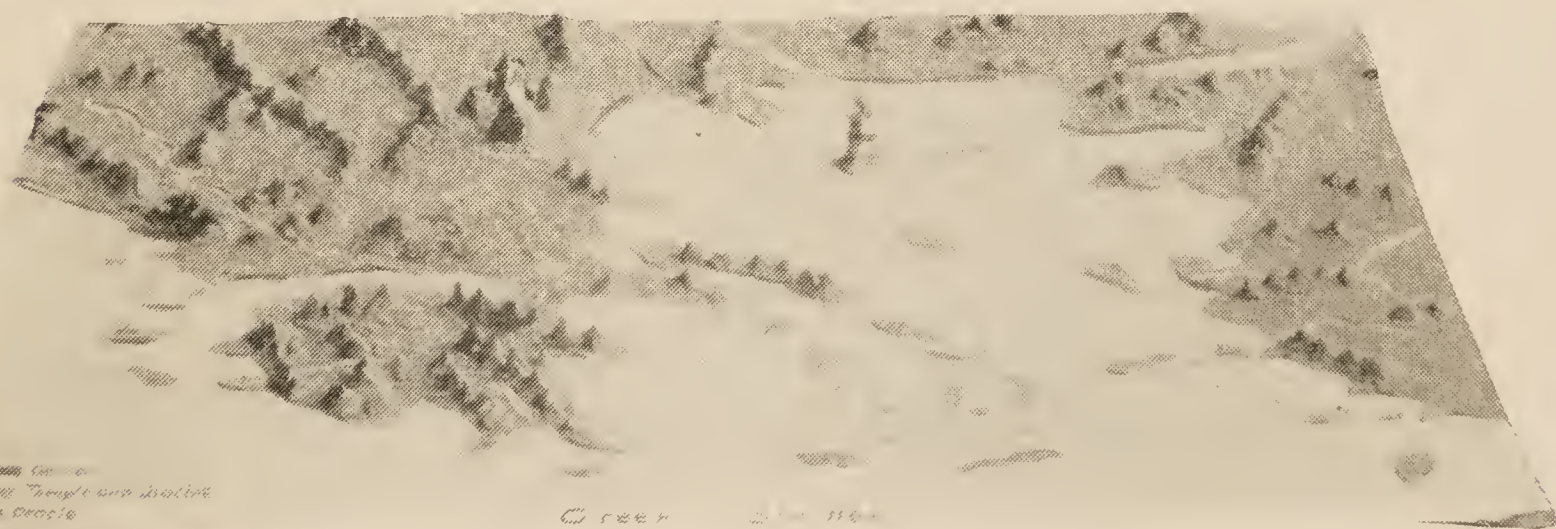
I am trying to show that words without images mean little to children, and that images in the early years are built upon first-hand experiences and observations. We feel that by seven or eight years of age children should have seen and, if possible, have explored at first hand a wide variety of earth and human situations related to their personal or their community's food, houses, transportation and other needs. The way men meet these basic needs is what we ordinarily call work. The work will, of course, vary with the earth and human environment. But every place—mountain or desert, city or country or suburban—is geographic. Experiences with earth and with human situations are the raw material out of which geographic thinking evolves. Until children have had the chance to work out some relationships close at hand and to get actual images behind such words as markets, railroads, stations, steamers, tugs, barges, harbours—or whatever situations the particular locality provides them with—they are not ready for the vicarious information which is ordinarily given under the name of geography and history.

Even when children extend their world to include the long ago and far away, the laboratory attitude must be preserved; they must continue to work out relations for themselves. Source material will more and more take the place of trips—though no school group ever outgrows trips. Though new tools for study and new symbols for expression will develop, the learning process does not suffer an abrupt change. Children of six years complete the learning process by reliving their experiences in terms of play. Boat play develops after a trip to the docks; train play after seeing the goods yards. The school has not only to provide children with opportunities to take in; it has to provide them with opportunities to give out—to express.



*An attempt by a 6-year-old boy to clarify Relations observed in
Tours of New York.*

[Experimental Class, Public
School 41, Manhattan.



*Zeus in Gold and Purple sits on Mt. Olympus
Plasticene Relief Map by 10-year-old Girl*

[Rosemary Junior School,
Greenwich, Conn.

Blocks and a floor, crayons and paper, clay and a carpenter's bench constitute satisfactory media for expression. If children are given time they will not only play out the drama of human geography, they will begin spontaneous maps. The floor schemes built of blocks by our six-year-olds more often than not indicate Manhattan as an island with the Hudson, East and Harlem Rivers, the harbour with its Upper and Lower Bays, islands and lighthouses, channels and buoys, all roughly correct in their position relations. Drawn maps then begin. The six-year-old map in the illustration shows the struggle to clarify certain relations. Manhattan appears as an island, but the water is not close to the symbol of the island. The bridge is an arch, but does not span the water. I heard a six-year-old who had just painted Manhattan floating in gorgeous blue water, say to herself, 'Now I'll put in Brooklyn Bridge'. She began bravely, leaving Manhattan with a sweep of red paint. Then her face puckered: 'Where will it come down?' she questioned. I asked her what she had seen across the river when we had been on Brooklyn Bridge. With a sudden flash of discovery, she announced: 'Brooklyn', and immediately painted in the land so that her red bridge had both feet on solid ground. These early maps use symbols, but symbols which stand for concrete images. When I asked my eight-year-olds if a horse could get over a State boundary line, one said: 'If he was a good jumper!' The symbol got ahead of his understanding of the thing symbolized, just as it did with the intelligent twelve-year-old who was trying to trace a river on a map from its source to the sea, and who said: 'I must be going wrong, for it's getting into Canada'.

It is no easy matter to provide older children with geographic situations in which the learning

process is given a full chance, to present the far-away to them through pictures, dramatic stories and source materials that will build up images and let them work out relationships for themselves. It is no easy matter to create tool maps instead of mere demonstration maps. It is easier to teach geography than it is to provide raw materials and tools for real geographic thinking. But the working out of a laboratory method with suitable source materials and tools is the task of geography teachers. It is as much needed at eight and at twelve years of age as at six, since all the way along children must be given opportunity to take in information, to make it their own by working it over and by expressing it in some way. Longitudes and zones, humidity and vegetation are all related to the earth or to human life, or they would not be geographic. If the opportunity to work out these relations is given and given at an age when these relationships mean something, they will all become usable conceptions, instead of memorized isolated facts or symbols that do not stand for realities. Symbols must develop gradually from the tangible representation of an actual thing such as a doll or a toy boat through the semi-pictorial symbol of a mountain or river to abstractions of lines and shapes which are never seen, such as contour lines and outlines of countries.

If genuine geographic thinking could be sustained and developed through the school years, human geography might well make a big contribution to scientific and to social thinking. At least that is the happy belief of some of us who are working for a method of approaching the distant and the long-ago world which will be comparable to the method by which children learn about the immediate world around them, and then relive it in play.

ERRATUM

Miss G. M. Crofts points out that on page 203 of the June issue she should have been described as Member of the Staff of the Junior Department, not as Head. The Editor desires to express regret for the error.



The New Era has been asked to state that a current report of the closing of Beacon Hill School, Harting, Petersfield, Hampshire, at the end of this term, is entirely unfounded.

The Significance of Geography

MARGARET WHITING SPILHAUS

Designer of 'Philips' Picture Maps'

IT is not uncommon to hear a child, especially a young child, remark that he does not like geography. Why? Of all the subjects in the curriculum one would imagine that geography presented the widest field of interest. The name of a single town could fill a story-book. How did it come there? Who came there first? Why is it so named? How do you get there? What do you find when you get there? What are its inhabitants like? What do they do? Here is a river. Who found it first? Can you navigate it, and if so, who does, and what for? And if it is not a highway, why is it not? Here is a mountain range. What grows there at its different altitudes? How high is it? Who first climbed its peaks? How does its presence influence the surrounding country?

The much harassed teacher, given just so much time to squeeze his pupils through the matriculation examination, will ask how in the world he is to answer questions in history and economics and propound the popular notion of geography at the same time. One has much sympathy with the teacher; at the same time his attitude is the answer to the 'why' of dull geography lessons.

Once an examination is over children retain very little of what they have learned by rote, and we have to answer the question: Do we, or do we not, teach in order to impart knowledge? How much of the ordinary geography lesson is a waste of time?

I cannot speak from a teacher's professional experience, but there are two points which in dealing with children have been ever present in my mind. The first is, that we remember by the association of ideas; and the second, that children have an intense interest in doing things. On these two pegs we can hang a whole theory of education.

Next to doing things himself the child likes to hear of other people doing them. It is the human interest which holds him. If you tell him that Ecuador is a republic in South America, and require him to find it on the map, he will make an effort to retain the fact in his mind, but you leave him cold. Tell him about Benalcazar and Amalgro; that the country is called Ecuador (a Spanish word) because it lies under the Equator; tell him how such items of information bear on the life and development of the country; and he will remember without any effort at all. In the process you will have imparted historical as well as geographical knowledge.

Inevitably you have a correlation of studies. Correlation can be carried to an extreme, but in the teaching of geography and history it can be carried very far before it reaches tedium. I would go so far as to say that in teaching younger children the two should always be taught together. Some children are still being taught very much as one was taught thirty years ago. We learned by rote the long list of English

kings. We learned the date of Magna Charta (which we have since forgotten), as we learned the names of Henry the Eighth's wives, and what-not; and at another lesson we learned the names and locality of countries and towns and rivers and mountains and 'products': a weary programme. Nobody told us how everything really happened, and gave us an opportunity of deducing for ourselves (consciously or unconsciously) why England grew in the way it has done, and not as Germany or Venezuela.

It is very difficult in these days of specialization to get a teacher who knows as much about history as geography, and who has an equal enthusiasm for each of them. Nor is it a wise plan to hand over the junior children to a teacher who has not mature qualifications for teaching the subjects he chooses, though this is more often the plan than not. To be clear and discriminating calls for something more than an elementary knowledge. In teaching, especially in teaching young children, greater cleverness is required in deciding what to eliminate than in deciding what to divulge, and only a teacher soaked in his subject is in a position to make such decisions.

To propose the dual specialist may be a counsel of perfection, but then teachers, at any rate the best of them, are always propounding to themselves counsels of perfection, and their high aim has certainly resulted in some astonishing successes.

We cannot educate without having an ultimate goal in view; and the goal of education is a preparation for life. Preparation is dependent upon memory, and memory upon interest. The child is not interested in knowledge he cannot apply. He is a most reasonable being; and in the teaching of geography and history we have an opportunity *par excellence* of drawing him at once into the real stuff of life. Continuity appeals to him: we are up and doing; we have always been up and doing; and what has been done in the past is inalienably part of what we are doing now. Man is inseparable from the land he lives upon, and the oceans he sails. Climate affects his occupation, his temperament, his appearance. His political policy is governed in many important aspects by the geographical position of his country. His ocean conquests have brought about epoch-making readjustments not only in realms military and social, but also in the realms of science and philosophy. Waterloo may have been won on the playing-fields of Eton, but the effect of teaching geography and history intelligently and in correlation in the schoolroom would be farther reaching, and would contribute substantially to the avoidance of Waterloos in future.

A preparation for life is not only the preparation for an individual career in the passing of examinations, but the preparation of a man or woman of the world, having a mind stocked with knowledge, not neces-

sarily of vast extent, but of a quality sensitive to continual development. The parable of the talents may be applied to knowledge. A fact must be made to live and breed, or it is of no value, and during his schooldays a man must have been taught to think, and to increase his natural inclination to associate ideas. How many of us who 'hate France' or 'detest Americans' are in a position to judge other men in relation to their environment and national problems? How many of us understand a tithe of what has contributed to the motives of other peoples, or even what underlies our own?

I know that pressure of time will be one of the objections offered to increased outlay upon geography and history, but are the curriculum's periods fairly distributed? Arithmetic is the crowned goddess of the schools (especially in South Africa, whence I write, even to the extent of keeping a child persistently in a form on a standard with his arithmetic, to the detri-

ment of his talents). Why arithmetic should have pride of place when the bulk of citizens require only a work-a-day knowledge of it, and since we have exploded the idea that a general habit of exact thinking can be inculcated only in the process of manipulating arithmetical symbols, it is difficult to understand. As a matter of fact, the possession of an exact mind has very little to do with the study of arithmetic. The exact mind rejoices in arithmetic, and the inexact mind is kept in control by figures, but the study of arithmetic has no relation to the amount of exactitude brought to bear upon other work. Anything more inexact than the average person's attitude to historical and geographical matter could not be imagined.

May we not, without apology, put up a plea for special study of geography and history, even to the extent of robbing, if necessary, the school curriculum of some hours given to a less vital subject? The result would be sounder and more cultured citizens.

Passing Rich on £50 a Year

[Note supplied by E. B. CASTLE, Headmaster]

AN anonymous donor gives £50 a year to the Leighton Park School, Reading, England, as a leaving Travel Scholarship to be used by a boy at the school to travel as far as he can, as cheaply as he can, living as hard as he can, seeing as much as he can, and getting into as close touch as possible with the common people of the countries he visits.

In the first year the successful candidate travelled over Germany for a month, but merely lived in hotels and did not do much more than the ordinary tourist sightseeing. The year after that Philip Evans set the pace by adhering much more closely to the terms of the scholarship. He travelled in eight countries in Europe, tramping 450 miles, travelling 1,200 by rail, all third-class, 750 miles on barges and steamers on rivers, particularly the Danube. He got as far as Budapest, was away seven weeks and did the whole lot on under £25. His itinerary was something like this: through France, through the Jura into Switzerland, from Switzerland over the Alps into Italy, back through the Brenner into Austria up to Ratizbon, then down the Danube to Budapest, back again through Vienna, through South Germany and then up through North Germany, Holland and Belgium, and so home.

As he still had half the scholarship left, he used the remainder for a similar adventure in the following year. From Dauphiné, where he was spending a holiday with his people, he tramped to Marseilles with a friend; there they boarded a tramp ship for Oran; then they commandeered a Ford car and travelled to Fez, where they were entertained by friends who introduced them to several courteous and hospitable Moorish families, among whom they had many delightful experiences. From there they came back to Tangier, and so home. This cost them £29 each.

The year after that, Donald Sherborne secured a post as assistant steward on a ship going to Australian

ports via the Cape, the first port of call being Fremantle. He travelled 25,000 miles; he washed 1,000 crocks every day, and lived the rough life of a sailor for six months; he went practically all round the world, as he came back via the Suez route. He saw a good deal of Australia and spent some time at each of six Australian ports. He arrived back thin but very fit.

Last year even these travels were excelled. Two boys of 17 started by tramping thirty miles to Oberammergau to see the Passion Play; from there they tramped to the Danube, where they smuggled themselves as super-cargoes on a barge as far as Vienna; from Vienna they went down to Budapest by steamer, and from there, tramping and using light railways, steamers and so on, they went through Sofia and eventually to Constantinople; from there they took small steamers to Mount Athos and spent three days among the monasteries there. After a tremendous climb over Mount Athos to the other side, they took a small ship to Salonika and from there went through the ancient cities of Greece, roughing it all the way, going across Greece to the Adriatic, and home.

This year one of the lads has already started out for four months' hard work with Grenfell of Labrador, and he is applying for the scholarship on the strength of that as he wishes to travel in Canada afterwards.

The splendid point about this travel is that the lads are tremendously keen to rough it. This is shown by the fact that when the boys on their last travels were asked 3s. a night at Budapest for a bed, they thought it extortionate.

One of the deepest impressions made upon the lads is the ease with which these things can be done. To people at home they sound rather startling, but the last pair of boys were most impressed by the kindness and generosity of the common people they met in every country between here and Constantinople.

A Few Aids to Geography Teaching

1 GEOGRAPHICAL ASSOCIATIONS AND MAGAZINES

AMERICA

American Geographical Society of New York, Broadway at 156th Street. Publication: *The Geographical Review* (scientific); to teachers in the United States and Canada, \$3.00 a year; elsewhere, \$3.50; others, \$5.00.

The National Geographic Society, Washington, D.C. Publication: *National Geographic Magazine* (pictorial).

AUSTRALIA

Geographical Society of Australasia, 421 Collins Street, Melbourne, Victoria.

Royal Australian Geographical Society, Institute Buildings, Adelaide, South Australia.

CANADA

Canadian Geographical Society, Ottawa. Membership Agent for Great Britain: Frank Hughes, 199 Wymering Mansions, Maida Vale, London, W.8. Annual fee: Canada and the British Empire, \$3.00; United States and Mexico, \$3.50; other countries, \$4.00. Publication: *Canadian Geographical Journal*; included in annual fee. Publications office: 610 Laganchetiere Street West, Montreal, P.Q.

ENGLAND

The Royal Geographical Society, Lowther Lodge, Kensington Gore, London, S.W.7. Publication: *The Geographical Journal*; free to Fellows of the Society. Annual subscription, £3; entrance fee, £5.

The Geographical Association, c/o Municipal High School of Commerce, Princess Street, Manchester. Local Branches throughout England; affiliated associations in Northern Ireland, South Africa, Federated Malay States, Burma, Ceylon, India and New Zealand.

FRANCE

Les Annales de Geographie, 103 Boulevard Saint-Michel, Paris V. Editor: M. Armand Colin.

GERMANY

Geographische Zeitschrift, bei Herrn B.G. Teubner, Leipzig.

INDIA

Madras Geographical Association, Gopalapuram, Cathedral Place. Publication: *The Journal*.

Bhugol (a Geographical Journal), Ewing Christian College, Allahabad, U.P.

Curzon Geographical Society, Muslim University, Aligarh, U.P.

Bombay Geographical Society, Town Hall.

SCOTLAND

The Royal Scottish Geographical Society, Castle Terrace, Edinburgh. Publication: *The Scottish*

Geographical Magazine; free to Members of the Society; non-Members, 3s. each issue.

SOUTH AFRICA

South African Geographical Society, P.O. Box 5013, Johannesburg, Natal.

2 POSTERS, PUZZLES, PICTORIAL MAPS AND PICTURES

POSTERS AND POSTER REPRODUCTIONS

Great Western Railway—Advertising Department, 20 Eastbourne Terrace, London, W.2. Size 25 by 40, 1s. 6d.; 50 by 40, 2s. 6d.; each, post free. Particulars and lists on application.

London, Midland and Scottish Railway—Divisional Passenger Commercial Superintendent, Euston Station, London, N.W.1. Size 40 by 25, 2s. 6d.; 40 by 50, 5s.; each, post free. Particulars and lists on application.

London and North Eastern Railway—Advertising Manager, 26 Pancras Road, London, N.W.1. Size 25 by 40, 1s. 9d.; 50 by 40, 3s.; each, post free. Particulars and lists on application.

Southern Railway—General Manager, Advertising Department, Waterloo Station, London, S.E.1. Size 25 by 40, 2s. 6d.; 50 by 40, 5s.; each, post free. Particulars and lists on application.

Empire Marketing Board, 2, Queen Anne's Gate Buildings, Dartmouth Street, London, S.W.1. Size, 60 by 40. Prices range down from 3s. 6d. each. Schools should write for list of these particularly decorative and instructive posters and poster reproductions, and application form for free issue.

Canadian National Railways—Advertising Department, 17 Cockspur Street, London, S.W.1. Particulars on application. Posters supplied free. Size 25 by 40.

Canadian Pacific Railway Company—Advertising Department, 62 Charing Cross, S.W.1. Particulars on application. Posters supplied free. Size, 25 by 40.

Swiss Federal Railway—Publicity Department, Berne, Switzerland. Particulars on application, for free issue.

PUZZLES

Jig-saw Puzzle Maps, dissected into Counties and States. Printed in colours. List of series: Africa, Asia, Australia, England and Wales, Europe, North America, South America, Scotland. 3s. 6d., postage 0d. extra. Geo. Philip & Son, Ltd., 32 Fleet Street, London, E.C.4.

Jig-saw Puzzle Maps are also issued by the Great Western Railway, Advertising Department, 20 Eastbourne Terrace, London, W.2.

PICTORIAL MAPS

Africa; Australia; North America. All designed by Margaret W. Spilhaus. Pictorial aids to the study of human geography. Prices: Africa, cloth w/metal rims, 5s.; cloth and varnished w/rollers, 6s.; 22 by 31 ins. Australia, cloth w/wooden ledges, 6s.; cloth and varnished w/rollers, 7s. 6d.; 40 by 30 ins. North America, cloth w/wooden ledges, 6s.; cloth and varnished w/rollers, 7s. 6d.; 30 by 40 ins. Geo. Philip & Son, Ltd., 32 Fleet Street, London, E.C.4.

Children of the World. The John Day Publishing Co., New York City.

The Holy Land; The British Isles; Great Adventures; History of the State of New York; Australia (designed by Margaret Whiting); Book Lovers' Map. 12s. 6d. each. The Challenge Ltd., 92 Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.

Europe-at-a-Glance. A simple, instructive gazetteer of Europe by a turn of the wheel. Also British Empire, England, Time and Postal Rates wheels. 1s. each. Frank Pitchford & Co., Ltd., 11 Well Street, London, E.C.1.

The 'Eno' Map of the World. Done in the manner of the old time cartographers by Alfred E. Taylor. Price, including postage in the United Kingdom, 1s., 2s. 6d., and 5s.; abroad, 1s., 5s., and 7s. 6d. Size 40 by 30 ins.; printed in eight colours. J. C. Eno, Ltd., 160 Piccadilly, London, W.1.

An Agricultural Atlas of Scotland. By H. J. Wood, B.Sc. Geo. Gill & Sons, Ltd., Minerva House, Paternoster Square, London, E.C.4

PICTURES

Aerial Photographs of many towns in British Isles; size, 8½ by 6½ ins., 3s.; 5 by 4 ins., 4d.; cards, 2d. Aerofilms, Ltd., Aerial House, The Hyde, Hendon, London, N.W.9.

Cards of Central and Western England and Wales. Useful catalogue arranged in subjects and places. Cards, 3s. and 4s. the dozen. Larger sizes to 18½ by 12½ ins., 7s. 6d. W. A. Call, County Studio, 3 Priory Street, Monmouth, Wales.

Cards, 2d. each. Postage, 12 cards, 2d.; 24 cards, 3d. Judges, Ltd., Hastings, Sussex.

Geography Pictures. Selected and edited by J. Fairgrieve. Complete in eight sets of 64 pictures each. Size 6 by 4 ins. The British Isles; North America; The West Indies, Central and South America, Antarctica; Africa; Australia, New Zealand, Pacific Islands; Asia; The Mediterranean; Europe. The first set, The British Isles, is the only one published to date. A. & C. Black, 4 Soho Square, London, W.1. 1s. The Macmillan Company, Toronto. 50 cents.

Postcards of Stonehenge, castles and abbeys, generally 1d. each; less in packets. List of sites of antiquities in all counties. 1s. 6d. Office of Works, Westminster, London, S.W.1.

Photogravure series of British Isles. 1d. each. R. Tuck, Raphael House, Moorfields, London, E.C.3.

Pictures from all over the world. 10 by 8 ins., 2s.; 8 by 6 ins., 1s. 6d. Underwood Press Service, 30 Red Lion Square, London, W.C.1.

Set of 15 postcards showing the evolution of the map. Publications Department, British Museum, Bloomsbury, London, W.C.1. 1s. the set.

Pictures of Scotland and Northern England, of Central England and Wales, of South England, of outside Great Britain, and a series of pictures specially suitable for young children, are to be found in *A List of Illustrations for Use in History Teaching in Schools*, published for the Historical Association by G. Bell & Sons, Ltd., London, W.C.2, from which the above were taken.

Special Facilities in Empire Geography are offered by the Imperial Institute, South Kensington, London, S.W.7. These include: 1) Conducted tours by guide-lecturers; 2) educational and Empire film displays; 3) educational and Empire lectures; 4) leaflets on the cultivation and manufacture of certain Empire products; 5) picture postcard series of the same; 6) school samples of products. Nos. 1, 2 and 3 are given free; a small charge is made for Nos. 4, 5 and 6. School parties should not number more than twenty-five, and should be accompanied by a teacher or adult. The Library is available for teachers and students of Empire subjects.

3 FILMS AND SLIDES

FILMS

Kodascope Library Films. May be hired for private exhibition in schools and clubs where no admission fee is charged. Large range of geographical films. Particulars from Kodascope Library, Kodak House, Kingsway, London, W.C.2.

SLIDES

Large selection of geographic slides obtainable on hire from Newton & Co., 43 Museum Street, London, W.C.1.

Large selection of slides obtainable for use in London County Council Schools. May be borrowed by special arrangement for use outside the County area. Particulars from the Education Officer, Room 81, County Hall, London, S.E.1.

Mechanical apparatus for showing films, slides and pictures will be listed in the August issue of *The New Era*.

4 MISCELLANEOUS

Material on Geography—By Mary J. Booth, A.B., B.L.S., Librarian, Eastern Illinois State Teachers' College, Charleston, Illinois, U.S.A. Includes commercial products, industries, transportation, and educational exhibits which may be obtained free or at a small cost. Published by the compiler. 4th revised edition.

Otherland Plays—A book of six plays. By A. Simms. Wells Gardiner, 3 Paternoster Buildings, London, E.C.4. 2s. 6d.

A Children's Catalogue—Compiled by Minnie E. Sears. Contains a good section on geographical and industrial studies, readers, stories and texts. H. W. Wilson Publishing Co., New York City.

Organizations dealing especially with international school correspondence:—

Correspondence Scholaire Internationale, Musée Pédagogique, 41 rue Gay Lussac, Paris. The Director.

Department for International School Correspondence, Room 521, Phelan Buildings, San Francisco, Cal., U.S.A. The Secretary.

Jugendrothkreuz, Stubenring 1, Vienna I, Austria. The General Secretary.

Organizations possessing guest houses and hostels suitable for use of school tramping parties:—

The Youth Hostels Association. A list of hostels published for use of members may be obtained from the Honorary Secretary, 18 Bridge Road, Welwyn Garden City, Hertfordshire. 6d.

The School Journey Association. A list of centres published for use of members only. Terms of membership may be obtained from the General Secretary, Mr. H. W. Barter, 35 Parkview Road, Addiscombe, Croydon, Surrey.

The Holiday Fellowship, Fellowship House, Great North Way, London, N.W.4.

The Co-operative Holidays Association, Birch Leys, Cromwell Range, Fallowfield, Manchester, England.

World Explorers. Headquarters: 'The Friend Ship', Charing Cross Pier, London, S.W.1.

Facilities extended by Dominion Headquarters in London:—

Commonwealth of Australia, Australia House, Strand, London, W.C.2. supplies illustrated literature of the Commonwealth free on application by teachers.

New South Wales Government Offices (address as above), supplies limited particulars and a few pamphlets of general information about the State.

New Zealand Government Offices, 415 Strand, London, W.C.2, supplies literature according to special requirements of schools.

Office of the Agent-General for Queensland, 409 Strand, London, W.C.2, supplies literature dealing with Queensland. Teachers may also bring parties of pupils to the office, where samples of Queensland products are exhibited.

Office of the Agent-General for South Australia, Australia House, Strand, London, W.C.2, supplies maps and illustrated printed matter on South Australia.

Office of the High Commissioner for Southern

Rhodesia, Crown House, Aldwych, London, W.C.2, supplies literature relating to Southern Rhodesia, and a card displaying samples of products.

Office of the Agent-General for Tasmania, Australia House, Strand, London, W.C.2, can arrange for lantern lectures to be given to larger schools, or would send sets of lantern slides; but not films.



THE AUGUST ISSUE

THE SCOPE OF MECHANIZED
EDUCATION

WIRELESS EDUCATION IN
DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

PRACTICAL FILM EXPERIMENTS

TEACHING BY WIRELESS
IN SCHOOL

THE MAGIC CARPET

International Notes

Geography

The attention of teachers of geography in the English-speaking world is specially called to the desirability of their becoming members of the Geographical Association, which for many years has promoted the teaching and study of geography in universities and schools; its journal, *Geography*, is issued quarterly to all members. Its collection of 4,000 books and 3,000 lantern slides is at the service of members, who may borrow from it through the post. Its officers help teachers and researchers in every possible way. The annual subscription is 10s., and the Association's Offices and Library are at the High School of Commerce, Princess Street, Manchester.

Empire Geography

The Report of the Imperial Institute for 1930 covers the period when the Imperial Conference met in London. It outlines the work for the year of the various sections concerned with the Empire production of raw materials. In connection with the Mineral Resources Exhibition, which has been visited by many science teachers, a handbook has been prepared containing many statistics, maps, and graphs, with the title 'A Survey of the Mineral Position of the British Empire'. This can be had from H.M. Stationery Office or from the Imperial Institute, price 2s. (2s. 2d. post free).

The exhibition galleries have been progressively rearranged as funds have been available. During the year fifteen new panoramas of Canada were constructed and installed, twelve of which were presented by the Canadian Pacific Railways and the Canadian Government. Two others were generously presented by Mr. C. V. Sale, late Governor of the Hudson Bay Company. Two panoramas have been constructed out of funds provided by the Acting High Commissioner of Newfoundland. Funds for a panorama illustrating the activities in Labrador of the Grenfell Association of Great Britain and Ireland have been received through Lady Grenfell. A collection of silk fabrics made in Iraq on local hand-loom has been presented by the Director of Research, Central Experimental Farm, Rustam, Baghdad, and added to the exhibits. A special grant has been sanctioned for the complete installation of a court for Northern Rhodesia, and a panorama of cattle ranching is under construction. A panorama of the maize industry has been completed and added to the Southern Rhodesian court. Three new panoramas illustrating Kano City, the groundnut industry and the mahogany industry have been completed and installed in the court devoted to Nigeria. Sierra Leone has a new panorama illustrating the ginger industry. The area of the Ceylon and Malay Courts has been extended, and the following new panoramas constructed in the Institute studio with funds supplied by the Ceylon Association in London have been installed:—The tea industry, copra drying, rubber tapping. A panorama of Colombo harbour has been set up with funds supplied by the Ceylon Government, and two further panoramas are under

construction, one illustrating the preparation of coir fibre and another illustrating the modern system of contour planting for rubber. The following new panoramas of India have been made in the Institute studio:—Rice in Burma; Jute in Bengal; Coal-mining in Bengal; a Burma Oilfield; Arrival of Mail Steamer at Ballard Pier, Bombay; a Jute Mill in Bengal. These form part of a collection of Indian panoramas constructed from funds supplied by the High Commissioner for India or by private companies in co-operation with him. They are shown, by arrangement with the High Commissioner, some in the Indian Gallery and some in the Exhibition Hall at India House. A panorama to illustrate the coffee industry in Jamaica is in course of preparation.

In addition to school parties and the general public, many special parties paid visits to the galleries during the year. Many photographs illustrating scenery and industries in Empire countries have been lent for propaganda work in connection with the Empire. The total number of free books and pamphlets distributed to school parties, individual applicants, and in response to 289 written requests, was 25,112. The number of schools making written requests for specimens of Empire products was 159, and the total number of specimens sent was 7,012. The cinema, installed and maintained by the Empire Marketing Board, has continued to attract large audiences, the attendance for the year being over 370,000 as compared with 243,914 in the preceding year.—*Times Educational Supplement*.

Schools may avail themselves of the services of the Institute as follows: 1) Conducted Tours by Guide-Lecturers; 2) Educational and Empire Film Displays; 3) Educational and Empire Lectures; 4) Leaflets; 5) Picture Postcards; 6) School Samples of Products. Nos. 1, 2, and 3 above are given free. A small charge is made to cover cost of 4, 5, and 6. All information from the Imperial Institute, South Kensington, London, S.W.7.

England

Summer School for Boys and Girls—The second Summer School for the study of English will be held from 15th July to 19th August for boys and girls from about 15 to 19 years of age from other countries. During the first two weeks the young people live in the homes of children attending St. Christopher School, and are thus given an introduction to English family life and the opportunity of making personal friendships and of taking part in the activities of the school. When the summer holidays begin, members of the Summer School move into the school buildings and take part in a carefully planned course of instruction in the English language and literature. The fee for the school is £3 per week per child; this is practically inclusive. All particulars from St. Christopher School, Letchworth, Hertfordshire.

A free copy of *Fuller Citizenship*, an excellent booklet containing hints for teachers and others on

civics, by E. M. White, F.R.Hist.S., may be obtained on application to Miss White, Westcroft, Norton Road, Wembley, Middlesex.

Peace Day—The Association of Education Committees has passed a resolution in favour of setting a day aside each year in all schools for the purpose of propagating the ideals of peace. When the resolution was considered by the Head Masters' Association, the principle of a Peace Day was approved and Armistice Day was suggested as the most suitable for this purpose.

The School Empire Tour Committee is contemplating a visit to Australia for boys between the ages of seventeen and nineteen years. The tour aims at being both educational and imperial. The tour will last from August to January, and will cost about £170. The route will be via the Panama Canal, returning by way of the Suez Canal—a voyage round the world.

Citizen House, Bath—A Summer School will be held at the Little Theatre, Citizen House, Bath, from 31st July to 14th August. An Autumn School will be held at the Everyman Theatre, Hampstead, London, from 4th–13th September. All particulars from the Warden, Citizen House, Bath.

France

The International Child Congress will be held in Paris from 27th July to 1st August. The Congress aims at bringing together those who are interested in questions concerning the child from two to seven years of age. Information from Mme Herbinière-Lebert, 12 rue des Grands-Champs, Paris XX.

A Ten-Thousand-Franc Prize is offered by Monsieur A. J. Delcourt, biologist, of Toulon, for a Manual of Education in any language. Particulars may be obtained from the New Education Fellowship (La Ligue Internationale pour l'Education Nouvelle), Musée Pédagogique, 41 rue Gay Lussac, Paris V. Members of the New Education Fellowship will be among the adjudicators.

Franco-British Summer College—An experiment in modern language teaching will be carried out this year at the University of Clermont-Ferrand, Auvergne. The University has decided to open its doors during the summer vacation to boys and girls in the fifth and sixth forms of English secondary schools, and to offer the hospitality of its secondary boarding schools. Further particulars from Mr. L. Lamport-Smith, Assistant Secretary for Higher Education, Norfolk County Council, Norwich. The charge will be about 3s. 4d. a day, so that £12 would cover all expenses for a six-week stay, university fees and railway fare included.

Germany

Hamburg—The *Michigan Education Journal* has an interesting note on the work of an instructor in the University of Hamburg, who, with the aid of her students, has made a study of what children do on the street; how far they wander away from home; how intelligence and street activity correlate; the effect of age and sex upon the street activity and so forth. She has given her results to the City Authorities, and a play-ground programme has been based upon her findings.

Nursery School Association of Great Britain, 32 Bloomsbury Street, London, W.C.1

The British Commonwealth Conference on Education to be held in London, 24th to 30th July, will include amongst its groups for discussion, one which will consider the needs of the children between two and seven years of age, and the special problems of nursery and infants' schools. At the request of the New Education Fellowship, the Nursery School Association has agreed to organize this section of the Conference. A programme sub-committee, consisting not only of representatives of the Nursery School Association Executive, but including representatives of the work of infants' schools, has been formed and is at work. This sub-committee is hoping to be able to ensure a most valuable and interesting exchange of experience and ideas on the care and education of young children, as carried out in the widely different environments found within the British Commonwealth.

On 29th May four representatives of the N.S.A. Executive gave oral evidence before the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education in reference to the Enquiry into the Education of Children under Seven. The Memorandum previously sent in by the N.S.A. included notes on an Appropriate Curriculum, the Two-year-old Child, Nursery Classes, the Staffing of Nursery Schools, the Training and Examining of Teachers of Young Children, and the Child under Seven in the Rural School.

On 14th May the Arellian Nursery School in Belfast—the first nursery school in Ireland—celebrated the opening of the beautiful new open-air building which in less than two years has replaced the unsuitable accommodation of the first year of the school's existence. A large meeting was held in a marquee in the grounds of the school, and the presence of the children so near at hand in their charming and well-equipped surroundings was greatly appreciated. The N.S.A. was represented by Miss Grace Owen. This nursery school, as is well known, owes its inception and development to the enterprise of the Arellian School for Girls, with the support of Miss A. M. Purvis (Headmistress), Miss M. McNeill (Honorary Secretary of the Nursery School), and many friends. It receives as yet neither local nor Government grant, but the value of its work to the community is so obvious to every thoughtful observer, that it can only be a matter of time before the Education Committee of Belfast shall give it practical recognition and support.

In answer to a question in Parliament during the week ending 16th May, Mr. Morgan Jones, Parliamentary Secretary of Education, stated: 'The number of nursery schools in England and Wales at present recognized by the Board of Education is forty-four, of which fourteen have been recognized during the last twelve months. Final plans have been approved for thirteen schools which are believed to be at present under construction. The average cost of building a nursery school is approximately £36 per place.'

GRACE OWEN

Book Reviews

The Management of Young Children. By William E. Blatz and Helen Bott. (Dent & Sons, London. 10s. 6d.)

I commend this book to parents.

It is perhaps best to express adverse criticism first and so clear the ground for appreciation. In this country we prefer concise writing, which is at the same time clear. Consequently many American books prove tedious for us because the thought in them is expressed with the maximum rather than the minimum of words. In spite of this defect, from our point of view, this book will amply repay all who delve into it, in the hope of finding thought to guide them in the direction of the child's development.

The contents are described under four headings: 'The Nature of Control', 'The Physical Environment', 'The Social Environment', 'Types of Motivation'.

'The Nature of Control', under three sub-headings, is worthy of careful study, for here is discussed with wisdom and width of vision, the question of discipline and the necessity of having a very definite conception of our aim in presenting discipline to the child. The important point is worked out and made very clear that the child must, once arrived at adulthood, have acquired the power to direct and control himself, depending neither on coercion from without nor on the leadership of others.

The section on 'Rewards and Punishments' is also worthy of careful study and should lead all who resort readily to punishment as the only solution for persistent wrongdoing, to reconsider their methods and reconstruct a new policy.

In a book which is brimful of constructive thought on everyday difficulties and emergencies in the nursery, it is difficult, in a short review, to discuss points without discussing the whole. It is well to stress the fact that it demands careful reading and, as regards certain chapters, even re-reading since it aims at provoking thought rather than laying down maxims which can be followed without thought and often to the detriment of the child.

A lighter touch is introduced by sections called 'Illustrations', which give apt and helpful illustrations of the subject under discussion. But even here, everything is not said, rather opportunity is afforded for individual thought on the illustrations provided.

Alice Hutchison

Parade of the Living. By John Hodgdon Bradley. (Routledge & Sons, Ltd., London. 10s. 6d.)

If you are wistfully inclined to think that romance and adventure are things of the past this delightful book will be a pleasant surprise. The parade of the living from the time long ages past when life in its lowliest form struggled for existence in the primordial slime up to the present is a drama more thrilling in the

telling than anything I have ever read. Out of the dust of laboratories, from the patient study of devoted scientists, we are told the amazing story of this our world. There was a time when brawn ruled the world—when the universe belonged to the reptiles—dinosaurs as long as 80 feet, and weighing more than 30 tons. They have vanished for ever—one of nature's riddles. Now man rules the earth with brain instead of brawn. Shall we have our little day and vanish as the dinosaurs? 'It avails man little to fret,' says Dr. Bradley. 'He had much better travel his curve in the spirit of little children on a merry-go-round, who enjoy the ride though it takes them nowhere.' This is not a book for children, but I should not hesitate to read aloud almost any chapter to a child of ten or more and find a keen listener. It is a book to be read and re-read not only for its content and for the thought it provokes, but for its beautiful style.

Dorothy Walton Binder

The Teaching of Reading by the Sentence Method. By Edith Luke, M.A. (Methuen & Co., London. 3s. 6d.)

This book is an answer to those who question how to teach children to read intelligently.

There is no arbitrary step in the whole process of teaching to read by the sentence method as described here. As it unfolds from a short description of other existing methods, through a detailed and most practical account of Miss Luke's own experiment, to advice on the making of apparatus and advisable answers to critical parents, one feels that everything is here. The method is based on psychology, both of the child and the adult reader; it has evidently been tested and altered by experience in the classroom.

Finally, to those who might think that here perfection is reached, and they need trouble no further, Miss Luke quietly inserts a note to the effect that her methods are continually being modified by new light on the subject, either from other experimenters or from actual experience with children.

The arrangement of group work is particularly clearly explained, and shows how the problem of the new child entering a class that has already started on a course, can be met successfully. The illustrations are clear and suggestive.

Evelyn Walters

The Tune Book of a New School Hymnal. By Ernest M. Palser and R. Bernard Elliot. (Harrap & Co., Ltd., London. 8s. 6d.)

Hymnals have undergone astounding changes in recent years, and especially since the War. Old hymnals have expurgated many of the more lugubrious songs which our mothers and fathers endured

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or enjoyed according to their natures. New collections have appeared such as this *Tune Book* for schools, which reflect the modern change in religious concepts and values. There is an absence of songs about the 'happy land far, far away' and the longing for death's release, and an emphasis on internationalism, peace and brotherhood, and the richness of life.

The *Tune Book* is an excellent and scholarly collection of hymns though altogether conservative. It contains many of the more beautiful old favourites and some famous German, Latin and Greek hymns in their original languages.

As it is a school hymnal there are many songs especially adapted to youth. The hymns are topically arranged, and there is a very complete index of tunes.

D. W. B.

The Door of Youth. Edited by M. C. Cowan, O.B.E., M.A. (Oliver Boyd, Ltd., Edinburgh. 1s. 6d.)

This is a collection of poems from the school magazines of twenty Edinburgh schools—'an admirable enterprise', as John Buchan calls it in his Foreword. For there is a value at the present time in making public what is a new phenomenon in post-war education, if only that it may sooner reach the safe obscurity of the commonplace.

The renaissance of poetry began in the universities in the early years of this century, and reached the schools during the War years through the work of pioneers like Mr. Greening Lamborn and Mr. Caldwell Cook. This little volume and the kindred ones which have been published since *The Play Way* first appeared in 1919, have a function quite apart from the pleasure which they give to lovers of children's work. They show what is happening in the schools of to-day and convince the sceptical that the ability to make a poem is no singular gift, but is fast becoming the natural heritage of our children.

'Singing is so good a thing

I think all men should learn to sing'

wrote William Byrd in the seventeenth century. We may say the same about verse-writing to-day. Many people are surprised to find how naturally and spontaneously children learn to use this medium for the expression of their feelings. Their delight in natural beauty, their deep excitement over some stirring historical story, their surging pride in the heroism of fathers and uncles who fought in the Great War—all these are finding the time-honoured outlet of rhythmical expression with its wholesome discipline of measure and rule. Let doubters read J. M. R.'s poem on 'The Death of Alexander III' or 'I Distribute Cheerfullee' by H. H. G. Hogg.

The Door of Youth opens upon no strange world. It is the familiar child's world of countryside and classroom; but it is a world seen through eyes which have learnt to seek for beauty and to find it. It may well be, as the Introduction suggests, that a new society may be attained through this fostering of the finest impulses of youth.

Latin with Laughter. By Mrs. Sydney Frankenburg. (Heinemann, Ltd., London. 2s. 6d.)

This little book is dedicated to mothers who, having learnt no Latin, or having forgotten what they learnt, wish to give their small sons and daughters a foretaste of the subject before school life begins. It is clever and it is amusing in spots; but I don't know why parents should bother to give their children a foretaste of Latin at the age of three or even seven, as Mrs. Frankenburg suggests. How can mothers or governesses who don't have any acquaintance with a language give an intelligent foretaste of it to a child? I shudder to think of the torture inflicted on a German mother if she had to give her child a foretaste of English by the same method. Few mothers would consider it worth their time and patience nor would they have the ingenuity to make even Mrs. Frankenburg's novel stories, which to my mind most children would rate as 'silly', interesting enough to digest. Any effort to make Latin less of a trial is worthy of attention, but after all our energy might be more profitably directed towards the schools and teachers of Latin, than towards trying to smear a little treacle on the subject in the nursery. Better that the children spend their time on natural pursuits and build up their resistance to possible later boredom.

D. W. B.

Folk Tales of all Nations. Edited by F. H. Lee. (Harrap & Co., London. 8s. 6d.)

Here is a wonderful book indeed. The fairy tales and folk-lore of the world gathered together in one compact volume of 947 pages. Great credit is due to the Editor for collecting and sifting such an immense number of tales from such widely scattered sources.

In one sense it is a task of international importance that has been done, for it is impossible to read many of the stories without noting curious likenesses between one and another wide lands apart in origin. Once again the oneness of 'all nations that on earth do dwell', shines out.

Each group of tales, each of the sixty-four countries represented, that is, is prefaced by a brief editorial note, pointing out salient characteristics and drawing interesting parallels. Also giving the publishers' references to the many collections drawn upon in this volume.

The translations are excellent where the actual words of the narrators could not be given.

It is a question who will enjoy these fairy tales most, the young or the old—the elders will certainly renew some golden hours of youth.

Probably it will be a surprise to some English readers to learn that several of their most cherished youthful companions, i.e. 'Cinderella', 'Puss in Boots', 'Beauty and the Beast', and 'Little Red Riding Hood', come to them from across the Channel, and are French.

K. Douglas-Fox

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

School Buildings Very few of the many hundreds of schools of all kinds we have visited in different countries are pleasing architecturally, or convenient and pleasing inside. The site and the view from the windows are, of course, usually not a matter of choice, but the position of the buildings on the site, the buildings themselves and the development and utilization of the ground could be made the subject of much more intelligent study than is generally the case, with great gain to teachers and children.

Many Education Committees spend much money on a school building but the result, especially in state schools, is a barn- or factory-like edifice, solid as the Sphinx, advertising in every stone the amount of money spent upon it, and showing no beauty in asphalt or earth playground or iron railings. Ratepayers experience a glow of pride when viewing the building, but how many would care to spend the daytime of ten years or so within unfriendly uncomfortable rooms lit by windows too high to see out of, or take their recreation in a railed-in asphalt or dusty space? Yet these are the buildings and spaces in which children are herded and forced to work and play, day after day, year after year.

True, the buildings are often imposing, and inside, the paint, the floors and general finish would be passed by a surveyor as good work. But the paint on the walls is dark brown or dark green—for it must last five years. There may be one or two copies of well-known pictures in each classroom, but they often hang neglected in a sadly crooked fashion. In few schools are there wall-spaces on which the children's own work can be hung or an inset blackboard surface upon which they can draw in coloured chalks; nor is there place for temporary exhibits

illustrating current events or subjects upon which present interest is focussed. In these darkly painted classrooms the desks stand all in a row, facing the teacher's desk. The rooms may be clean and tidy. But the monotonous surroundings, the barrack-like and chilling effect! No wonder Bernard Shaw likens these schools to prisons.

What teacher cannot conjure up a picture of an elementary school in a poor district, its cloakrooms, its staircases, its playground? Yet the children who attend these schools are just the ones for whom surroundings different in quality from those of their homes is needed, who need space, air, sun, cleanliness, for the good of their little bodies and their struggling souls. Should these large dull buildings be erected to last for years, to be used long after they are out of date and inconvenient simply because they were built solidly to endure? The school sites in the centre of large cities must be valuable. Could they not be sold advantageously, and the money spent in building a school on the outskirts, a country day school where city children can have air and space and freedom? The trams and buses which bring workers into the city from the suburbs could be utilized to take the children out to these schools at a cost small in comparison to the gain in physical and mental health.

Of the best schools we have seen, some were housed in temporary buildings, good for perhaps twenty-five or forty years of life. This is a quite long enough span of life for a school when ideas on and ways of teaching are altering so rapidly, of necessity, as the requirements of life modify and change. These buildings are not too precious for the children to alter and adapt to their needs themselves—to re-paint, to re-arrange, to adapt. Were experienced teachers

consulted when new schools were being planned there would be fewer ugly buildings, fewer inconvenient classrooms and, it is safe to say, no more dark brown paint. What we need is the teacher *cum* architect. School architecture, school planning, school furnishing—on all these the working and experienced teacher would be able to give valuable advice.

Space and Colour And the ordinary school furniture! The desks of a dull and ugly brown that hold two children, and are too solid and heavy to be easily moved, are still far too often seen, and lend a harmful formal rigidity to the already drab classroom. The modern preference is for tables, chairs and single desks of a size and height suitable for children. They can be easily moved, and are a symbol of changing methods of teaching which require the possibility of individual as well as group work, and of floor space from which chairs and tables can be cleared. In some schools each room has a colour scheme and the desks are painted to match. Such paint is easily soiled and damaged, but washable enamel paints can be procured, and it would be useful and enjoyable work for the children to wash their furniture occasionally and to give it a fresh coat of paint yearly. Every child loves to paint; think of the training in neatness and skill of hand that such painting days would give! Children take pride in and care for things that they themselves have helped to beautify.

In the majority of schools there is far too little space; there is rarely a large empty room devoted to dramatics, to the trying out of new projects, to the hundred and one activities that space is needed for. There are rarely large cupboards for things like charts and specimens. There is rarely a big enough room for a library. Less money should be spent on the buildings as buildings, and more money on teachers' salaries, equipment and libraries.

Indeed, how many state schools have that essential thing, a library? A room where children can learn to enjoy reading by themselves, where reading can be dissociated from sitting at a desk under the eye of a teacher. I heard an inspector remark to a village teacher the other day: 'When the children are doing supplementary reading let them go and sit out

of doors, lie on their backs or their "tummies", sit by themselves or in groups at choice, so that they may learn to *enjoy* reading'. The teacher was of the old school; she looked horrified at the idea of allowing children to 'work' in such a way. Yet the inspector was right.

Facilities for Handwork Modern teaching requires easily accessible facilities for handwork, particularly in the elementary stage up to twelve years old. In some schools a recess is built in each classroom to hold a woodwork bench and tools for making models connected with projects. The children can make screens to shut off a portion of the room—if it is large enough—for this purpose. I have seen charming screens designed and made by children. It is much more satisfactory if in *junior* schools handwork can also be done as required in conjunction with class work, as well as separately in the formally equipped craft shop.


Mechanical Aids How many schools use scientific aids to teaching such as those mentioned in this issue: wireless, cinematography, slides? Many schools say they cannot afford them. But we cannot afford to give children any but the best opportunities to grow into citizens of the first class, physically, emotionally, mentally, spiritually, and these aids partake of the nature of true education. Other objections are, that good teaching is not and should not be dependent on mechanical devices, and that the school equipped with every modern aid to teaching is not necessarily a school in which the teaching is vital and dynamic. These objections are perfectly valid. Neither the teacher nor the mechanical device is sufficient alone; it is the combination of the two that can provide the perfect medium. Mechanical aids are accepted and now indispensable in adult professional and business life; it is time they were accepted and made indispensable as tools for the teacher.

We should like to hear from readers concerning changes they would wish made in buildings, playgrounds, equipment, furniture. We shall shortly be planning a special number of the magazine on this subject, and should be glad to have illustrations and ideas.

Mechanical Aids to Education

G. T. HANKIN, H.M.I.

Member of the Central Council for School Broadcasting ; member of the Governing Body of the International Educational Cinematographic Institute (League of Nations)

‘UR teachers are living in the age of Henry Ford and are trying to prepare their pupils for the times of the village blacksmith.’

Such an attack on our educational ideals and practice is a useful irritant. Bergson, in his *Creative Evolution*, indicates more delicately, a similar line of thought :—

‘As regards human intelligence it has not been sufficiently noted that mechanical invention has been from the first its essential feature, that even to-day our social life gravitates around the manufacture and use of artificial instruments, that the inventions that show the path of progress have also traced its direction. This we hardly realize because it takes longer to change ourselves than to change our tools.’

The object of this article is to consider how far it is desirable for a teacher in a changing world to change his tools, how far it is his duty to shape the new tools for himself, and how far he will leave the task to those whose financial interest it is to provide them and popularize their use. The most obvious new teaching tools are the wireless and the gramophone, to appeal to the ear, the typewriter and the pantograph to help the hand, the epidiascope, the micro-projector and the silent film to assist the eye, and the talking film to reach the brain through eye and ear simultaneously. We have passed from parchment to paper, from the quill pen to the steel pen, to the fountain pen, from the manuscript copyist to the printing press, from the jellygraph to the rotary duplicator. Are we going to accept the newer inventions as they appear, or are we going to try to refuse them entrance into the schools and the universities?

We are living in ‘the age of Henry Ford’. The children we teach have never known the ‘times of the village blacksmith’. Their film consciousness and their wireless consciousness leave the older generation helpless and astonished. It is a revelation to take a class after they have seen a film or heard a wireless lesson and to discover

what accurate and complete impressions they have received through eye or ear. They are going out into a world where ‘the age of Henry Ford’ will have become history, where they will receive much of their information and amusement not through the wireless and film as we know them, but through these media as they will be developed by those who have begun their experience in the days of Henry Ford.

The teacher has to make a very conscious effort if he is to face the situation fairly and without prejudice. His own education was built up through the help of the printed book and the voice of his teacher. His present position and usefulness seem to depend on his use of the printed word and of his own voice, the personal contact between teacher and taught. It now seems to be suggested that children shall receive impressions by means of the wireless and the moving picture, and that the personal contact shall be non-vocal for as much as twenty-five minutes at a time. To be supplanted by the printed word is one thing, to be ousted by mere mechanical devices is quite another.

And yet the problem must be faced on the broadest basis. We must either fit the child to play his part in a changing world by accustoming him early to these new mechanical methods of reaching the brain through the senses, or we must, with full knowledge of what we are doing, set the pace slower, and endeavour by our methods of instruction to provide an antidote to the hurry and bustle of the world of to-day. We can deliberately keep the film and the wireless out of the school, though hardly out of the life of the child, on the general ground that such devices do not fit into our theory of education.

The latter alternative will find many supporters, but that position will not be discussed here. It is only the minor problem that will be faced : If these mechanical aids be introduced into the schools, how far can we ensure that they shall be used to the best educational ad-

vantage? We have to guard against external pressure from financial interests and from the internal danger of novelty for novelty's sake. But the greatest danger of all is our prejudice in favour of 'muddling through'. Local Education Authorities and school architects may well find that to erect schools without providing facilities for these mechanical aids is shortsighted economy that will eventually cost them dear.

With the epidiascope and the microprojector the difficulties are small. The teacher maintains his supremacy. He shows the class only what he wishes them to see. If once he admits the importance of visual aids he need have no scruples about using these, unless he feels that training in the use of a microscope is part of a general education.

The film and the wireless raise a different problem. Here the material put before the pupil and the form in which it is presented are determined not by the teacher, but by persons external to the school. The teacher can refuse to project a film or to receive a broadcast lesson—just as at present he can refuse to introduce any particular textbook. But once he has switched on either the film or the wireless, he recedes into the background.

Of course no good teacher will be content to fade permanently into a background. He will use his new instruments as power tools and refuse to become a machine minder. As Bergson says: 'It takes longer to change ourselves than to change our tools.' The main objection to the use of the new instruments is the difficulty of adapting ourselves to their use. At present we hardly know how to use these new teaching tools, how to adapt our curriculum to the possibilities that are opened out by the possession of them. Indeed, the manufacturers themselves are still learning how best to make them. Progress must be a matter of experiment, of trial and error, of experiment by good teachers of every school of thought, by a pooling of the results of experiment.

In wireless education the machinery has been set up and is beginning to function. The Central Council for School Broadcasting represents practically all the educational interests in the country. Its executive appoints committees, on which practising teachers are in the majority, to plan the course of broadcast lessons

in each subject. They do their best not only to provide as good courses as they can devise, but to collect evidence as to the values of the courses and the direction in which progress is possible. Two pamphlets, *The Evidence regarding the Value of Broadcast History Lessons*, and *The Evidence regarding the Value of Broadcast Geography Lessons*, have already been published. Information is being steadily collected on technical problems, criticism and discussion are urgently invited, the experience of other countries analysed and considered. School broadcasting is indeed being 'rationalized' in the industrial sense of the word. The time for *a priori* arguments has passed. Those who wish either to attack or to defend school broadcasting must now argue on the basis of evidence and not merely on that of preconceived opinions.

Moving pictures are, of course, a radically different problem. The industry has developed on individualist lines and there has been no central body in this country to advise manufacturers on the production of educational films or to investigate the value of such educational films as have been produced. Meanwhile the type of film exhibited in the picture palace has aroused so much criticism that the potentialities of the teaching film have been obscured. Many teachers and others feel so strongly that the picture palace exerts an evil influence on children that they fail to realize that the very strength of that influence proves the power of the instrument.

Public opinion has therefore moved very slowly in this country in the matter of films. The League of Nations has considered what is in the end an international question from an international point of view. The International Educational Institute of Cinematography at Rome, an organ of the League, is endeavouring to promote the cause of good films by the usual League methods, enquiry and publicity, leading up to possible international agreements. Countries like Germany, the U.S.A., Italy, Japan, and Austria, are facing the problem on their own lines. In the British Empire the movement is just beginning to gain momentum.

Educational films are now being produced in increasing numbers by firms like British Instructional. Distribution and exhibition are

arranged by organizations such as British Instructional, Community Service, and Visual Education, and by bodies like the Empire Marketing Board and the Imperial Institute. But reasoned and recorded experiments with teaching films have been lamentably few. The League of Nations Union made serious attempts to ascertain the value of their teaching films, 'The Star of Hope', and 'The World War and After'. The Historical Association has carried out a scientific piece of research on the value of historical teaching films, of which the report will shortly be published by the Carnegie Foundation. The Colonial Office has published

a report on Films and Backward Races. The National Union of Teachers is now at work on the results of an experiment with talking films. The Educational and Cultural Films Commission is collecting evidence on the whole question of the film and the need for some permanent central organization, which will exert a positive influence in favour of better films, educational and others. Their report should be published early in the Autumn. But the 'rationalization' of educational and cultural films is only beginning. Truly, 'It takes longer to change ourselves than to change our tools'.

The Place of the Film in Education

MARGERY LOCKET

Education Manager, British Instructional Films Ltd., London

THE film to-day is the strongest influence in modern social life. Its influence is mightier than the stage, wider than the churches and more universal than the written word. Certainly, its power as a universal medium appeared more potent in its early silent days than now when it has grown and taken to itself the addition of sound and speech. But it still remains to all intent the most potent international expression.

None of us can ignore this force. Most of us are amazed at it, many deplore it and certain of us look to it with interest and hope.

We are amazed that in a comparatively short time in the history of modern progress—within the memory of the living—this new medium of expression has been created, developed and brought to such a state of technical excellence that it now helps to mould our habits, our outlook, our standards. There is hardly an aspect of modern life or a class of the community which is not influenced. The shop-keeper, the builder and house decorator, the designer of dress and fashion, the social writer in press or novel, must provide for his public that which the film shows them. Sophistication and luxury are not now the exclusive attribute of the town dweller. The film carries its

presentation of living and its values into the small town, the backwoods and the cottage home. The most fantastic conception of the studio designer becomes the ideal of the workman and the workman's wife, and the tradesman who has his goods presented on the screen needs no more universal advertisement. It is perhaps Trade's biggest asset and best commercial traveller. No country can afford to ignore the power of the screen or to neglect its film industry.

The film is influencing our manners, our speech and our appearance. National characteristics are disappearing in a common desire to emulate those of the screen world. Even our social customs, our hours of eating, rest and social intercourse are definitely modified by the claims of the cinema performance. It has decidedly contributed to the breaking down of caste and social distinctions. Its 'star' system has created a new aristocracy and new standards of wealth and its profits have diverted fortune into unusual channels. Its power to purvey knowledge has removed many of the barriers raised by privilege in learning travel and opportunity.

We cannot help being amazed and many cannot help being dismayed at the influence of the cinema. So much has had to recede before it.

Some may deplore a loss of tranquillity and contentment in modern conditions which may quite reasonably be attributed to the films. Others may deplore the imposition of a set of standards and moral values by those whom we would not normally elect to be our arbiters in taste. Many may regret the cheap purveying of indiscriminate entertainment that makes it too easy and effortless in attainment.

But none can fail to be impressed with the power of this medium to-day or the contribution the moving picture can make to the modern 'expressio vitae'. We find it strange that it was not more quickly realized that the cinema places in the hand of the teacher, the propagandist and the prophet a vital instrument. But once realized, its potentialities could not be ignored.

To many who have preached the claims of the moving picture as an asset to education the question has sometimes occurred: 'Was this new instrument wanted?' 'Is it a necessity that we must supply?' 'In pressing for the production of instructional films, are we responding to a need?' Experience has taught us to say—Yes! Never before has it been necessary for great numbers of the community to have a mass of general information. The fight for existence demands a wide range of knowledge. There are more problems to be encountered in the day's work or a couple of hours' travel than our grandfathers encountered in a life-time. The education that sufficed for our parents or ourselves is growing daily more inadequate. The teacher must enlist more instruments to his aid to dispense the educational needs of to-day. To many, this may seem the reason and justification of the cinema.

It has not, however, been an easy business to adapt the film to the purpose of education. It has, unhappily, been found arduous and expensive to produce, and cumbersome and hazardous to use. Those enterprising in production and those foresighted enough to experiment in its use have been faced with difficulties and discouragements. Nowhere perhaps more than in England, where the educational system, together with the national characteristic of caution in the adoption of new ideas, has left to a few the promotion of the idea of the film as an educational and cultural force.

The scientist or teacher who, under existing

conditions, has wished to use the film as a medium for the expression of his ideas finds himself in a maze of technical difficulties and expense. He finds his idea is generally confused and diffused in its passage through many channels, and can very rarely go direct from his mind to that of the audience he aims to impress. To pay for the costliness of production the idea must be translated into a form sufficiently entertaining to appeal to cinema theatre audiences, and reaches the screen in very different guise from that in which it was conceived.

The enterprising teacher has had to instal on his own initiative, and very often at his own expense, an equipment which until quite lately was costly and complicated. There was practically no information at his service as to the most reliable type of apparatus or the best sources of film material. He had to choose his subjects often by their title only and adapt to his teaching whatever films happened to be available. His enterprise costs him dear, for the production of the films to supply his limited market is, of necessity, an expensive business.

In the entertainment field the product of British studios is having hard work to prove itself, whereas the instructional and documentary films that have been quietly and steadily produced for a number of years with faith in a future of visual education, are now beginning successfully to claim for themselves an unrivalled place in the world, and not least in America. There it is being recognized that all the best elements of British character seem to contribute to this British product—seriousness with a sense of realities, patient, reliable workmanship with a high standard of technique. The output of the educational studios of British Instructional Films Ltd. has all been purchased for use in American schools, and we can look forward to a day when British products in this field may command an international market. A country to-day will largely be judged by the films she exports and we may be proud to send these films abroad.

Given collaboration between her best teachers and thinkers and the best technique of her producers, the educational and propagandist film may furnish a medium by which England will take a foremost place among leaders of world thought and teaching.

Housatonic Camp



Ten-year-old Boy who has passed all the Swimming and Canoe Tests



Main Entrance to the Camp

[This American co-educational camp is run by Miss Laura B. Garrett, 3941 Carolin Street, Sunnyside, Long Island City, N.Y. The children named the camp, made the sign, and helped to build the building. They planned their gardens, raised their vegetables, and made tables out of boxes.]

The Wireless Way

A. LLOYD JAMES

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TEACHING by radio in England is very much an accomplished fact, as anyone may see who cares to study the programme of lessons to be broadcast to the schools during the forthcoming session¹. It is supervised by a Council which represents the official educational interests of the country, and which is served by subject committees of teachers and experts in the various subjects of the school curriculum. Under such supervision this broadcast education, which began tentatively seven years ago, now supplies an acknowledged demand: once the schools have a reasonable prospect of obtaining good reception, there is no doubt that it must become part of the national system of education.

With general policy, however, we are not concerned for the moment. What is of immediate interest is—How does teaching by wireless differ from ordinary class teaching? What are the qualities necessary for good broadcast teaching? What kind of people make good broadcast teachers? Is there a special technique? It is evident that this sort of teaching must differ fundamentally from personal class teaching, for the simple reason that the teacher can see no class, and the class can see no teacher. That is axiomatic; we may accept it as one of the postulates of the new science of radio technique. But despite this, the teacher who fails to see his class—his invisible class—and the teacher who sees the wrong sort of class, are doomed to failure. Intelligent imagination is the first essential. And the teacher who forgets that the class cannot see him is lacking in imagination of any kind.

There is a simple factor in the understanding of speech that is too frequently misunderstood; it is that speech is more readily intelligible when the speaker is visible than when he is invisible. This visual element consists of gesture, both bodily and facial, play of features and the count-

less small details of behaviour that are so full of significance in our every-day relations with our fellow-men. But the broadcaster has nothing visual to help him; to his audience he is just a voice, and all the effects he wishes to create must be done by voice, and voice alone. And what is more important than the creation of emotional effects, his very intelligibility is in jeopardy, when the visual element is no longer present. His actual speech, that is, his own individual way of performing the act of speech, must be above reproach; there must be no shoddy consonants, no humming and hawing, no fantastic tricks of intonation, no artificialities and certainly no idiosyncrasies of speech behaviour that are likely to prove either distasteful or merely funny to the audience. This, of course, is the shocking snare of the whole subject.

Most of us go through life blissfully unaware that our speech has oddities, tricks, peculiarities or what-nots; for it is a sad truth that no man can hear his own voice when he speaks. The first intimation we have that all is not well is likely to be a very rude shock, for we are all lamentably sensitive on the subject. I would make it a condition that all prospective broadcast teachers should hear themselves speak, either on a gramophone record, or, better still, on the new Blattnerphone. Some would retire without further warning; but those who took their task seriously would set about learning the business properly. How ludicrous it is when we think it out calmly—here we are with a task to do, and just one tool to do it with, the voice; yet we embark upon this difficult task without ever having experienced or known the effect of this voice of ours upon others.

This is no question of voice-training, or elocution: the broadcaster need have nothing to do with these arts unless he requires to be a singer or an elocutionist. It is a question of ordinary speech, and it is by their ordinary speech that broadcast teachers are made or marred. The B.B.C. mercifully spares children from

¹ *Broadcasts to Schools*, 1931-32. Published by the B.B.C., Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2. Free on application.

listening to all sorts of speakers by weeding out the utterly unsuitable, but only those who have tried to find speakers who can speak naturally into a microphone can possibly know how depressing is the hunt for the born broadcaster, and how disheartening is the search for the radio teacher. Where are the people who can:—

1. Talk well, in good English with no frills.
2. Explain the workings of things simply and clearly, without imagining that boys and girls of twelve are either imbeciles or university graduates.
3. Find mystery in most things and humour in their work.

We are driving down to personality, for those who have no vigorous personality, tempered with humour and, above all, with good sense, will never teach anybody anything. The teacher who reads his lesson is beyond hope. The written literary language is suitable for literature and not for conversation. University teachers use it in their lectures, and university lectures are probably the worst form of teaching ever devised. If the lesson *must* be read, then it must be written in colloquial English, and spoken as colloquial English is meant to be spoken. And therein lies the great snag—the greatest of all snags. Few of us can write colloquial English, and fewer still speak it, as, witness, both stage and film. Some misguided people imagine that the teaching of voice and elocution should aim at making our young people talk and read as though they were all to be desiccated curates, or Oxford undergraduates of the highly ‘precious’ kind.

A broadcast lesson should be a heart-to-heart talk, full of vigour, full of life, for ever changing in mood, punctuated with fun, always on the edge of expectancy, leading on the imaginary youngsters, chaffing them, twitting them, keeping them for ever wondering what will come next. If the teacher feels that, and if he knows children, he will behave like that and his voice will very soon persuade the youngsters that he is that sort of person. But the man who believes that his mission is to cram into twenty minutes as much information as he can about cats, or vitamins, or Africa, or Cockney vowels, is a dull fellow, with a mistaken idea of the purpose of education, a superiority complex about the state of his own knowledge, and a lamen-

tably deficient sense of humour. A lecture is *not* a lesson; lessons are intended to inspire interest in knowledge; lectures put most people off. Some day, perhaps, we shall give up the teaching of Education and teach our teachers how to teach, for it is conceivable that Education, with a capital E, has as little to do with education—with a small e—as theology has to do with the Salvation Army. Shades of Pestalozzi and Froebel! Thank goodness they did not know wireless teaching, or there would have been one more textbook on Education for our students to master! (But Rousseau, I feel sure, would have ‘got over’, if not on *Emile*, most certainly on *Music*.)

One word more to the would-be broadcast teacher. If he has followed so far, this word is unnecessary; but it must be said. It is customary in modern linguistic research work to pay attention, when describing a language, to its phonetic features, namely, the sounds, the rhythms and the intonations. Intonation is a subtle feature, varying from language to language, having functions notably different in Chinese and English, in Burmese and Luganda. Every language has its own scheme of intonation just as it has its own syntax, and this scheme rests on many unsuspected factors—it is all rather mysterious even to the most modern phoneticians and linguistic psychologists. But it is there, nevertheless, and there is no aspect of speech so valuable in the establishment of understanding as intonation. The syntax, the grammar, the vocabulary, are, so to speak, beyond our control: the intonation, though wrapped up in these, is something purely personal; indeed, possibly the most personal element in the whole business of speech. It is our individual contribution, and by it possibly more than by all else, we reveal to the world our personality such as it is. It is an affair of the spoken language and has nothing to do with the literary language.

One of the great problems of language is to know what intonation to use when the literary language has to be read or recited. Present practice varies considerably, ranging from clerical monotone to the empty noise made by some schools of verse-readers. And this is the cause of much bad broadcasting; our broadcasters cannot talk naturally, because they read, and they cannot make their reading sound convincing, because

the intonations they use in putting over this semi-literary language are neither here nor there. A man may have the most vigorous and sparkling personality imaginable—he may be a world authority on certain matters and the country may be anxious to hear him, but when he reads his manuscript before a microphone, his intonation may be that of a babbling baboo chanting incomprehensible holy jargon. To invite such people to give broadcast lessons to our schools is to jeopardize the whole future of broadcast education. What unhappily may pass muster in the pulpit and the lecture room, is not good enough for the studio. More power to the B.B.C. in its efforts to spare us from the universal bleater!

There remains much more to be said, but we cannot go on interminably. If we have left the subject matter to the last it is because we feel that matter is so definitely less valuable than method; what matters in the education of the young is intercourse with cultured adults. The acquisition of a modicum of knowledge is unfortunately necessary, but it has little educative value. And knowledge can always be handed out attractively. A man who loves and understands his subject, who is a human being and not

a fossil, who realizes that the only value of knowledge is its direct bearing upon human life, who has not lost the sense of wonderment and the capacity to arouse curiosity, and who has, above all else, that indefinable humour that English children love, should be able to talk about his subject, to interest others in it, to make them share his enthusiasm for it, and to inspire them with a desire to know something about it *because* this knowledge will add to their capacity to enjoy life.

The technique of broadcast teaching, is, indeed a very special thing, but of this as of so-called educational methods the same thing is true: better a bad method in the hands of a good teacher, than a good method in the hands of a bad one! Every artist must learn the technique of his craft, but technique alone never made the artist. If for nothing else, the B.B.C. is to be commended for its zealous search for good teachers, and its rigid rejection of bad ones, however distinguished in other walks of life. Good radio teaching can well be not only of immediate value during the lesson, but of permanent value in inspiring and encouraging school teachers in the difficult and responsible work to which they dedicate their lives.

The September Issue

CHANGING EDUCATION IN A
CHANGING EMPIRE

A Special Number on the
BRITISH COMMONWEALTH EDUCATION
CONFERENCE

held in London in July

Broadcasting to Schools in Nova Scotia

V. P. SEARY, M.A.

Secretary to the Department

THE Department of Education of the province of Nova Scotia began, more or less experimentally, a series of broadcastings to schools in October 1928. During the school year 1928-29 these educational programmes were broadcast once a fortnight from Halifax. In succeeding years the Department's programmes were broadcast once a week from Halifax and once a fortnight from Sydney, the latter station serving the island of Cape Breton, which contains about one-third of the population of the Province. These regular school programmes were the first of their kind attempted in Canada.

The aim of the Department is to supplement the work of the teacher, particularly in rural schools, and to awaken the interest of children in subjects of definite educational value which, because of the exigencies of the school time-table, receive scant attention. Many of the subjects chosen were close enough to the course of studies to be of direct value in daily school work. Talks on current events, for example, were given with the idea that teachers hearing the programmes would correlate them with geography, history, civics, and science. Other series of talks were arranged to deal with English language and literature, travel and geography, nature study, music appreciation, and French pronunciation, while occasional talks were given on a number of other subjects. For example, Dr. John Stewart, the venerable Dean of the Faculty of Medicine at Dalhousie University, who was at one time a student and assistant of Lord Lister, spoke informally to the public schools on the life of the great physician on the anniversary of Lister's death.

During the school year just closed the Department included in the broadcast educational programmes a series of talks on pictures and artists. Each school equipped with a radio receiving set was given in advance sufficient miniature coloured reproductions of the pictures to be discussed, to provide each pupil with one. The radio teacher in her talks dealt briefly with the biography of the artist under discussion, his most famous paintings, his methods of work, his style and, if possible, compared his work with that of other artists also studied in the same way. Pupils were encouraged to write notes on the pictures and artists considered, and to make art study scrap-books.

There have been, and still remain, many obstacles in the path of school broadcasting in Nova Scotia. School equipment is provided by local authorities and, quite reasonably, these local school boards have hesitated before making the expenditure necessary to equip their schools until they have become quite convinced of the utility of the Department's programmes. Some teachers, too, feel that they cannot spare the time. They often fail to see the connection

between the subjects broadcast and the subjects on the prescribed course of study. A further obstacle is found on the technical side. The two broadcasting stations used by the Department are both low-powered and do not give consistent effective coverage during the daylight hours. There is, in certain parts of the Province, too, considerable interference by powerful American stations. Little improvement on the technical side can be hoped for until some decision is arrived at concerning public or private ownership of stations. In the present state of affairs private owners hesitate to increase the power and range of their stations lest they lose their investment with the advent of a form of public ownership somewhat similar to the B.B.C.

The Department is making continued efforts to overcome the difficulties it encounters. Pupils and teachers whose schools lack receiving equipment are encouraged to listen to the programmes in private homes made available for the purpose by public-spirited members of the community. Leaflets announcing the programmes in advance are sent to schools together with suggestions for follow-up lessons and pupils' written work. But, as is well known, novelties in the field of education must make their way slowly until they have proven their worth beyond a doubt. The programmes are highly appreciated in some schools and by some teachers, and neglected or treated as a casual form of entertainment by others. This is a natural condition which will undoubtedly be much modified in time.

It is from a very different audience that the educational broadcastings receive a great amount of appreciation. When planning the programmes, the Department was concerned entirely with the public schools, particularly those situated in rural districts. It has been especially gratifying to find that large numbers of adults have made a practice of listening to the programmes. In some instances study groups have been formed, notably for instruction in French. There is very little educational broadcasting for adults from Nova Scotian stations and for this reason, the Department's programmes, even though intended at the most for secondary school pupils, received a welcome from large numbers of adult listeners all over the area served by the radio stations.

Plans are now being laid for the programmes to be broadcast during the coming school year. They will, by and large, follow the lines of those of previous years. The interest, which has grown steadily, if slowly, will become more effective as time goes on. Meanwhile, it is the task of the Department to keep a high educational standard in its programmes while at the same time taking care not to encroach on the preserves of the classroom teacher, who can be assisted, but not superseded, by radio education.



A 'Hiking' Party at Rievaulx Abbey, Yorkshire
[Friends' School, Saffron Walden, Essex]



A School 'Hike' on the North Yorkshire Moors
[Friends' School, Saffron Walden, Essex]

Practical Film Experiments

FRANCES CONSITT, B.A., B.Litt., Ph.D.

[Miss Consitt was Carnegie Trust Investigator working for the Historical Association while she carried out this film inquiry; she is now Lecturer in Education at St. Gabriel's College, Kennington, London]

I THINK that one can understand history better by films than by education,' says the small boy of twelve, after a history lesson via the film. 'In Latin lessons I only think of the words,' says an intelligent girl in a School Certificate class, 'but the film makes me wonder'—she was commenting on a Latin lesson where a film was used to explore its value in giving colour to the reading of a Latin text. Such remarks give teachers to think on the necessity of revising school methods to meet a changing age and to utilize modern apparatus.

In the case of the cinema, experiment in different centres is gradually establishing the value of the school film.

For instance, in America, Freeman's early work from Chicago University pointed to the advantage of 'the analysis of the curriculum in order to determine what can advantageously be taught with the film'.¹ His second investigation, undertaken in collaboration with Dr. Ben Wood, of Columbia University, and involving tests for 11,000 children, established the value of films for the teaching of geography and nature study.² Revesz and Hazewinkel, working in Amsterdam, reported that the lantern slide was more useful than the film for the teaching of geography, but in their experiments no oral instruction appears to have been given along with the showing of the slides and films. These investigators showed that the film unaided by the teacher is less useful than the slide unaided. The point bears little reference to actual school practice, where the teacher uses all these things to supplement his own instruction.³ Philpott,

working at University College, London, with films of varying subject matter, showed that film memories were more vivid than other memories.⁴ Lastly, mention should be made of the inquiry of Professor Knowlton, of Yale University. He tested 521 pupils of about 12 to 13 years old from February to June 1928. With some groups he used historical teaching films; other groups studied the same topics without the aid of films. He gave as his outstanding findings that the films helped the children both to learn and to remember information; use of the film led to fuller class discussion and to wider reading.⁵

It has recently been my privilege to conduct an inquiry in England into the value of the historical teaching film. The Historical Association instituted the inquiry, which the Carnegie Trustees generously agreed to finance. Philpott's impression of the value of the educational film needed to be tested by an inquiry into its helpfulness for separate subjects. Freeman had inaugurated such work in America, Knowlton had carried this further. English tests also needed to be taken. The conclusions that are true of one country do not necessarily hold for another in such a matter as this, since educational tradition and practice as well as racial temperament vary considerably.

The actual experimenting lasted a year, throughout 1929. The University of Leeds kindly allowed work from its Education Department as centre, and the Leeds Education Authority cordially granted full facilities for tests in the many types of school under its control. Occasional journeys were made to other towns. The Bradford Education Authority and

¹ *Visual Education*, ed. F. N. Freeman. 1924.

² *The Educational Screen*. November 1928, p. 220; October 1929, pp. 228-9.

³ *The British Journal of Psychology*. October 1924, p. 184 *et seq.*

⁴ *The Cinema in Education*, ed. Sir James Marchant. 1924.

⁵ *Motion Pictures in History Teaching*. Knowlton, D. C., and Warren Tilton, J. 1929.

the Education Authorities of the West and East Ridings of Yorkshire permitted work in their schools; a month was also spent in London, and a week in Bedfordshire.

Non-inflammable films of standard width were used. The first two, 'People of the Axe' and 'People of the Lake', were one-reel films of life in the Stone and Bronze Ages. Other films dealt with Roman Britain, with Wolfe's capture of Quebec, with Naval Warfare from 1782-1805, and with the League of Nations. A Houghton-Butcher, Number 5, Empire Model projector was used, and the experiments were performed in ordinary classrooms. No procedure was adopted impossible to a teacher alone with a class while showing them a film; the experiments were practical demonstrations of practical possibilities.

Different kinds of experiments were undertaken, but conclusions were primarily based on the type of informal test at last devised. The films in these cases were shown to classes ready to study the film topic in the ordinary course of their syllabus. After the film showing, a follow-up discussion lesson was taken with the class. Written exercises were given on the day after the film showing, and again at intervals of one to seven months. These essays were graded according to two criteria, for 'grip', or a balanced realization of the whole subject, and for 'atmosphere'. Comparison between the results of film lessons and ordinary lessons was possible, for the teachers assigned a grade to each child's usual work in history. Reliance was also placed on the children's oral response and on their opinion of the value of the film method of teaching. The children proved critics of unexpected balance, shrewdly differentiating between the entertainment and teaching value of the reels. In especial, trust was placed in the teachers' judgment of their children's film work.

Each school furnished a report on the experiments it had undertaken. Criticisms were given on the children's response, both oral and written, on the film used and on the film's projection. Suggestions were asked on the type of film likely to be useful for the particular children concerned. To quote these informal tests as evidence either for or against the use of the film, many experiments were necessary, and the opinion of many teachers. Actually, work was

done in 52 schools; in the majority of these several classes of varying ages were tested. One hundred and forty-three teachers of history and head teachers directly participated in the tests. Five thousand seven hundred and forty-three children took part. These included scholars from the ages of 7 to 18, boys and girls, pupils in elementary, central and secondary schools, town children and country children, scholars from North and South. That is to say, conclusions were based on an extensive trial of the possibilities of the film in all kinds of circumstances. It is the cumulative effect of the recurring good results from all kinds of children and schools, of the favourable opinion of many teachers with widely different views of the aims and methods of history teaching, that brings conviction of the helpfulness of the historical teaching film. The evidence of these reports, of these many tests, establishes many important conclusions.

In the first place, the film gives life to the past as nothing else does by its showing of life in movement and its portrayal of background with full detail. The film makes history real to the child. 'We can see the ships as they go along,' says a boy of 12 years, 'whereas in pictures they are standing still.' 'You can always think that the Romans and Britons are alive now,' says a little girl of 10 years, after seeing a film on Roman Britain. 'It seems more life-like on the screen. When you just talk it seems in a dead sort of way. In a book it would say, "the men charged, or the men scaled the cliff"'. On the screen it shows you how they did it'—this from a boy of 12 years after a film on the taking of Quebec. 'It looked real; it looked like as if you were there.' 'It makes the people more alive.' Such remarks from the children constantly recur, and the poorer the children's environment, the more they emphasize this fact of increased actuality.

Naturally, this quickens the children's imagination. Since they receive from the film a full and clear picture of the environment, they can the better imaginatively reconstruct for themselves other scenes of the same period as those seen on the film. 'The film makes you feel certain and accurate about *other* lessons,' says one boy. 'The people seem more alive to you and you know about their homes and dress. You seem to get more from ordinary history books

and pictures after you have seen some films,' says a 12-year-old girl.

Equally, the film stimulates mental effort. The criticism, frequently levelled against use of the film, that it leads to intellectual inactivity, mere passive looking on the part of the child, is unfounded. The film arouses curiosity; witness the questions asked on the first opportunity by most of the classes who have seen a film in school. The children's remarks show that if they know anything of the film's subject matter they are anticipating coming scenes. Their mental alertness is shown by their immediate criticism of possible falsity of detail. A boy of 12 years, for instance, who had previously seen the film, 'People of the Lake', when asked to describe the points which had most interested him in the Roman Britain film, wrote, 'I noticed that the distaff and spindle with which the Queen was spinning were different from the distaff and spindle which were shown in the film a fortnight ago.'

All this is closely bound up with a third aim of history teaching, the creation of interest, by which term I indicate 'a desire to know more'. Naturally, most normal children like to watch a moving picture, but this ephemeral attraction, of itself, is of little value. But the film awakens true interest, a real desire to know more, which leads the children in the follow-up lessons to want to talk, to ask questions, to discuss. In most cases, far more zest than is usual was shown by the classes in the follow-up lessons. Throughout the inquiry teachers commented on this fact. The class by no means depended on the teacher to supply all the topics of debate; the initiative came largely from the children, the ideal condition. It is this far greater readiness of the children to propound questions for themselves which distinguishes film discussions from those in other lessons.

I could multiply examples of this stirring of interest. A boy of 11 years, seeing the people of the Bronze Age at their various occupations, asked whether they chose their own jobs or were doing tasks appointed by the chief. A girl of 14 years, looking at the pictures of League Assemblies, wanted to know how the delegates of different countries were enabled to understand the speeches. Boys of 16 years, seeing a film on naval warfare, asked how many ships

usually operated in Nelson's battles, how far apart they sailed when advancing in line, why the enemy fleet seemed merely to wait for attack, how long the chase across the Atlantic took, why Villeneuve was ordered to the West Indies rather than to any other place, and a host of other questions.

In this connection of the help of the film in creating permanent interest in history, it should be noted that the mere fact that children like the films sets up those pleasurable associations in connection with the subject that are likely to lead to long-continued interest. The children enjoy watching the film; they enjoy talking of it. And it is a truism that only when a child enjoys a piece of work and gives it his full interest, does he really learn. 'Films are more enjoyable than ordinary lessons,' said one boy, 'and this makes people want more to learn history, and people who think history lessons are dry will change their minds.'

Does the film help children to learn and to remember historical information? I think all teachers would agree that if the film gives life, fosters the imagination, stimulates mental effort and arouses interest, it follows naturally that it will help children to learn and to remember. And the tests showed that this was the case.

Two other general results may be briefly mentioned. In the first place, use of the film forces children to find their own words to express opinions and describe scenes, not merely to borrow those of the teacher or textbook. Thus, the film, instead of helping to form the 'mass mind'—another general criticism laid against its use—encourages originality. Secondly, it may be noted that the film is of value in that it presents a point of view to the children, in addition to that of the teacher and their usual book.

The historical teaching film seems to reach its maximum use for scholars aged 11+ to 14+, but it is of little value unless skilfully used by the teacher. The film needs to be shown in conjunction with oral lessons. More particularly, a following discussion is essential to help the children to organize the new information gained. A teacher with the aid of a film should achieve a better result than he does merely by the oral lesson—but the teacher alone can do more than can the film alone. The film is an additional tool for the teacher, not a substitute.

Making a School Film

RONALD GOW

Altrincham County High School

THERE is great adventure in the making of a school film. There happens to be a fair amount of education in it too, but I tell you that in confidence, lest our boys should hear of it and refuse to make another film. Our philosophy goes in a nutshell. We work together, masters and boys, in enthusiastic co-operation. We make a summer camp activity of the production. We do all our own camera work with our own standard cameras, and just enough of the processing to make the experiment interesting without drudgery. We work as a team, because there never was a game like film-making for revealing the least trace of slackness and inefficiency. We have made history films and propaganda films, and when our history and propaganda displease you, we reply simply that we are pioneers. And we are all interested.

It was in 1926 that our first serious film was made. Before that time we had made several films of school events, which had flickered their brief lives in local cinemas. But we had reached the dangerous stage of feeling that we had a technique, and we were ripe for mischief. We were all anxious to make a story film, and the boys clamoured for something with a fight in it. Frankly, I saw my opportunity. We had been using films in the school as an educational aid, and it was obvious that our so-called educational films were not made by teachers. Why not make our own teaching film? I explained to the boys that Redskins were played out, and that Stone Age people were far better. It was then that we made our one-reel film of life in Neolithic times, with the invaluable assistance of a famous archaeologist, the late Sir William Boyd Dawkins. The story of the production of 'The People of the Axe', with its research, museum visits, manufacture of weapons, huts, costumes and properties, has, I feel, been told so often that I can hardly repeat it here. Our second film, too, 'The People of the Lake', has often been described, and both these films have been used by the Historical Association in their

recent research into the value of the teaching film. [See article on p. 272.] They have been widely used by schools, and many copies have been printed. The town of Altrincham strutted its brief hour in the national press as the place that lost its dustbin lids, because these things were wanted in large numbers as shields for a Bronze Age army. Such was the journalistic reaction to educational research.

In 1928, when we turned our thoughts to a Scout propaganda film, we had to study the 'box-office' as well. We intended our film to carry its message to picture theatre audiences, not as a subsidized advertisement film, but as an entertainment that exhibitors would pay for. We succeeded, and although the life of the film was cut short by the arrival of the talkies, it was shown in upwards of 250 picture theatres by the Universal Picture Company, who acquired the film. We have a strong Scout Troop in the school, and when we submitted the scenario of our three-reel film, 'The Man Who Changed His Mind', to Imperial Scout Headquarters, they at once offered their full approval and support. Moreover, we secured the Chief Scout to appear in the film. The story was simple. A ragamuffin boy and his gang are the enemies of a certain man. The gang leader falls in with a troop of Scouts and is able to study their methods, and to hear a camp-fire yarn about pirates. He sets to work to convert his gang, and at last with the help of his old enemy, a fire, and a fire engine, he succeeds. This at least was the stuff of which films are made, and it was an ideal story for the boys to act. Perhaps the chartering of an old three-masted barquentine at Appledore in Devon, for the making of the pirate scenes, is the adventure which will live longest in their minds. Certainly the atmosphere was complete when we found an old log-book in the cabin telling of a mutiny off Trinidad.

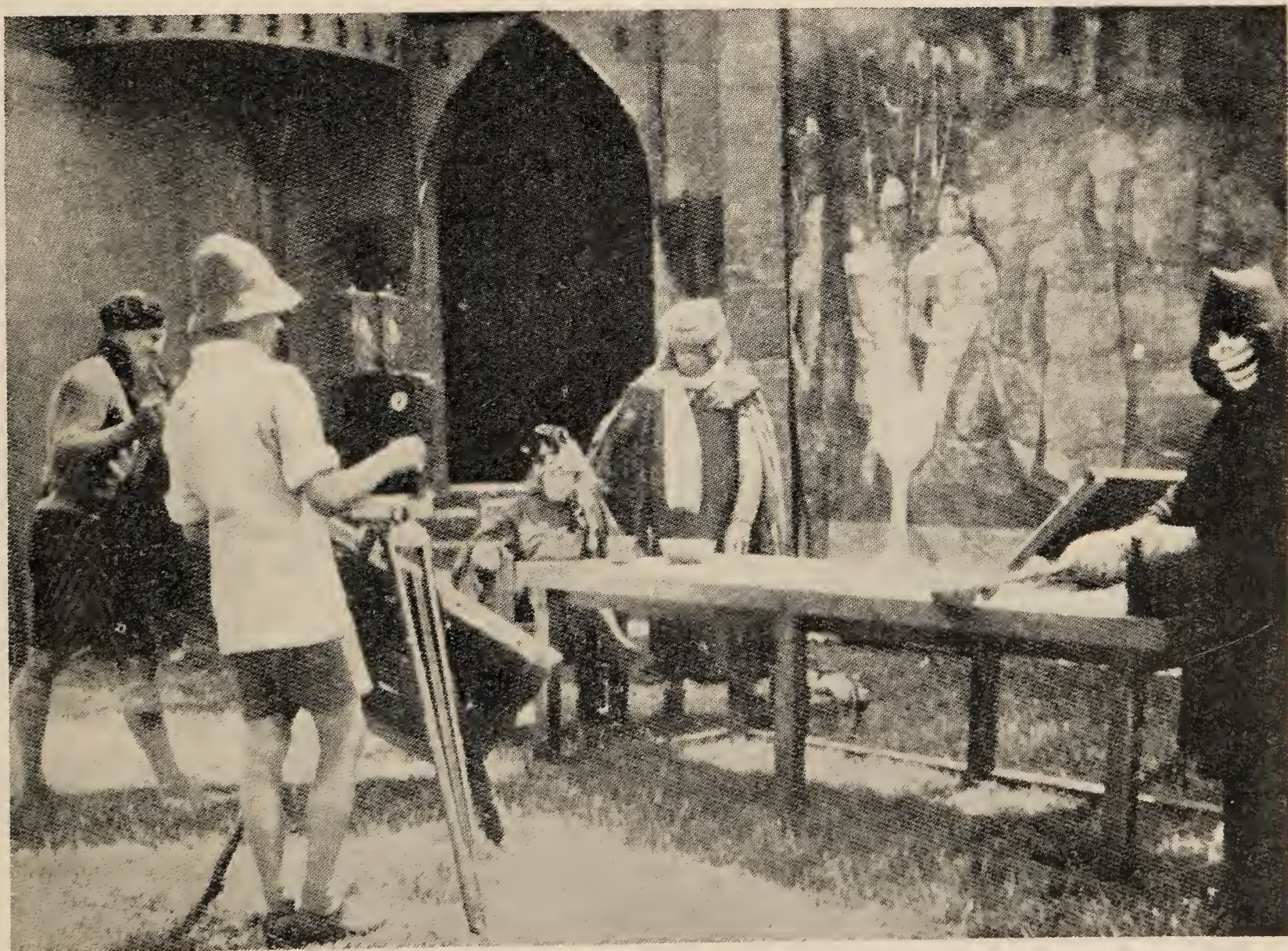
For the interior scenes in this film we built an open-air studio on the camp field. Some of the action took place in an ordinary room, the window of which had to be exactly similar to

that of a house which we had borrowed for exterior scenes. In open-air 'interior' photography the sun is a nuisance and must not be allowed to fall directly upon the setting or upon the actors, for the simple reason that it acts like an enormous spot-light which is completely out of control. Two sides of a room, therefore, were built from beaver-board flats, eleven feet high, so that a north light was the main source of illumination. Special effects, such as 'spotting' the characters from behind, were obtained by a number of tin reflectors, while much use was made of white canvas stretched on frames. A real wooden floor was made on joists laid on the ground. Cinema scenery must be solid, so a real door was used, properly hung. The most heart-breaking task in connection with this room-setting was that the rain caused us to distemper the walls five separate times. For those who wish to follow this primitive studio method we would give a warning against too lavish a use of

white paint. One of the scenes in 'The Man Who Changed His Mind' was laid in a hospital, and the walls were distempered white. These gave bad halation, and they had to be repainted a light pink to get the white effect of a hospital ward.

Our most ambitious film was, perhaps, 'The Glittering Sword'. Although not so popular in picture theatres as the Scout film—it is not, of course, a talkie—this film is having a useful career among the junior branches of the League of Nations Union, both on the original standard size film, and on sixteen-millimetre stock, to which it has been reduced by Messrs. Houghton-Butcher. ¹The theme of the film is disarmament, and in three reels, or half an hour's showing, we have tried to interest the child mind by telling a morality in the form of a mediæval legend. A mighty sword is hidden somewhere in the world, and the boy King would have this sword.

¹ Houghton-Butcher (Gt. Britain) Ltd., 88 High Holborn, London, W.C.1.



A Scene in the Palace
(Death, one of the characters in 'The Glittering Sword', was also taking snapshots)

Life in the palace becomes almost unbearable, until a boy who is seeking his fortune offers to go in search of the glittering sword, which he believes will bring peace and security to the world. Aided by two mysterious strangers, who are none other than the Devil and Death, he finds the sword and brings it to the King. The King would then declare war on the whole world, but the boy, in spite of the tempting riches offered to him, seizes the sword and appeals to the people. The mob is fickle, and they, too, cry for war, so the boy throws the sword into the sea. Our great claim for 'The Glittering Sword' is that it presents the problem of disarmament to children in a way that arouses fruitful speculation and discussion.

Two large open-air settings were constructed for 'The Glittering Sword', and two tons of scenery, properties and costumes were sent by rail to our Devonshire camp. A street in a mediæval town, and a scene in a palace were erected with considerable accuracy from three-ply wood, timber, plaster, canvas and paint. We had to build cheaply, but we had to build to

withstand the force of Channel gales, and we learned much of bracing and scaffolding and staying. The costumes, largely made at home, but none the less beautiful for that, numbered 150, and their care and preservation under canvas for a month was no light matter. Day after day, wind or rain made film-making impossible, but bitter experience has taught us the caprices of an English summer, and at the last moment we had 'boxed' 6000 feet of negative, from which was cut the scheduled 3000 feet.

When these notes appear we hope to be at work on a new film. The star actor is an English river, and Dame Nature will provide the settings. If you are heartless you may call it an educational film, but we shall be happy in another great adventure, and perhaps we may even give dull people a glimpse of the romance that lies at the heart of things. We are reverting to the motive of our earlier films, designed for school use alone, and now, armed with first-class apparatus, and with our technique well-assured, we aim at making the *first* geography film with no other than an educational purpose.



Building a Palace in a Field
(The grass was eventually covered with canvas)

Teaching by Wireless in an Elementary School

ARTHUR MOORE

Headmaster of Maulden Council School, Bedfordshire

IT is safe to say that 'The Unseen Teacher' is a member of the staff in many a school to-day, and that school broadcasting has long since passed the experimental stage, and has justified its claim to a place in our educational system. In the preface to the pamphlet 'Broadcasts to Schools', Mr. H. A. L. Fisher states that the Central Council for School Broadcasting do not desire that the microphone shall supersede the class teacher; they ask only for his co-operation, and welcome any criticism or suggestion he may care to offer.

As one who may claim to have made successful use of this means of teaching for the past five years, I would bring to the notice of any teacher who wishes to adopt it the following essentials :—

- (1) Discrimination in the choice of subject;
- (2) The use of a really good receiving set and loudspeaker;
- (3) A classroom as free from outside interference as possible;
- (4) The use of the pamphlets issued by the B.B.C. in connection with the course;
- (5) Preparation before the lecture, and
- (6) A written test after the lecture.

In regard to the first point, the choice of subject, whether for an elementary or a secondary school, is so wide and varied, that no teacher need have any difficulty in selecting one that can be fitted into the school curriculum. The syllabuses are drawn up by a body of teachers who write from experience, and who are therefore cognizant of the needs of the children. Such subjects as music, history, travel, English and nature study figure on the time-table of every school, while more advanced courses, as in biology and hygiene, literature and French, are available for senior scholars. The country child is also catered for by lectures in rural science and school gardening.

It may be argued that all these subjects can be taught equally well by the members of the school staff, but how many such teachers can lay claim to have such expert knowledge of a subject as that possessed by the lecturer

selected by the B.B.C.? What child can fail to be thrilled by the graphic description of life in the South Seas, as given by Mr. Clifford Collinson? The children literally hang on his words as the lecture proceeds, and laugh with real enjoyment at his humorous passages. Again, with Sir Walford Davies at the microphone, the scholars are apt to forget that they are listening to an unseen teacher; his manner of address appeals to even the most listless member of the class. Some time ago my senior class of boys and girls took the course of nature study lectures given by Miss von Wyss, and it was very amusing on several occasions to hear an involuntary reply given to a question which Miss von Wyss was in the habit of asking. And when two girls of the class actually won prizes at the terminal examinations and met Miss von Wyss in person at the studio at Savoy Hill, they realized that the lecturer was after all more than 'a wandering voice'.

The choice of a suitable receiving set should present no difficulty in these days, and here I would emphasize the fact that only the best is good. Where electric current is available, as it is in even remote villages in many districts to-day, an all-mains set is, in my opinion, the ideal set to use. In my own case I use a Kolster-Brandes 3-valve set, with a Celestion loudspeaker, and I never experience any difficulty in getting clear reception from the stations broadcasting school lectures. The B.B.C. offer the services of their experts to any teacher who is desirous of installing a set, or whose set is not as effective as it should be. The simpler the set the better, for school purposes, as long as clear reproduction is ensured.

In most of the courses a pamphlet is issued by the B.B.C. some time before the commencement of the term, and the wise teacher will obtain a supply of these for use by the class, as reference is frequently made in the course of a lecture to pictures, sketches or diagrams. In addition to many useful notes and sketches, simple experiments are outlined in many courses, as in nature study, biology and hygiene,

and rural science and gardening. In this way the child learns to 'do' something, in conformity with modern methods of teaching.

At this point, especially in the case of an elementary school in a poor district, the question of expense may arise; the purchase and upkeep of the set, and the provision of supplies of pamphlets each term may appear to present a formidable barrier, as the Education Authority will not, of course, supply what may be termed 'luxuries'. But there are very few schools where some form of entertainment is not given annually by the scholars, and, as I have found on many occasions, a jumble sale, organized by the school for the purpose, will serve to raise the necessary funds. It will be usually found that the parents of the scholars are ready and willing to rally round the head teacher in any effort made by him for the good of his pupils.

Now comes the vital matter of co-operation between teacher and lecturer, without which any wireless lesson may easily become a mere waste of valuable time. A preliminary talk by the teacher is necessary, while there are often simple experiments to be set up. Each child must have, in addition to the pamphlet, a note-

book in which pencil notes should be taken as the lesson proceeds. This, in itself, is a valuable form of training for a child, as he learns to note salient points, while the teacher at his blackboard is ready to jot down difficult words, or to make rough sketches as required. It is not wise to insist on very full notes at this stage, as the child is incapable of detaching his mind from the lecture to devote his full attention to note-taking; in fact, the fewer notes the better in most cases, as the child can more easily follow the trend of the lecture by listening carefully. As long as he can make good use of these rough notes in due course, it is not necessary to insist on neatness in handwriting or arrangement.

But the real test of success comes a day or so later, when a written exercise is set on the lecture. This may take the form of a series of questions, or a composition exercise, and pen-sketches should be encouraged wherever possible. I may perhaps be allowed here to outline the plan which I have adopted. The composition exercises are corrected by the teacher in the usual manner, and marks allowed according to merit. The child with the highest



Taking Notes during a Wireless Talk on 'The Ear'

[Maulden Council School, Bedfordshire]

number of marks is then allowed to copy his or her composition into a special book kept for that purpose, and thus a complete record of the course of lectures, written by the scholars themselves, is obtained. I find that there is keen competition to obtain this privilege, just as in the past the announcement of the names of the senders of the best essays each week by the B.B.C. was eagerly looked forward to by the children at the end of the weekly lecture. I regret that the B.B.C. have now discontinued this practice in most courses, as healthy rivalry undoubtedly encouraged good work.

Perhaps I may here mention another teaching appliance which I have recently found of great assistance when used in conjunction with the

wireless receiver: I refer to the electric projector, by means of which pictures, diagrams, sketches, and even the objects themselves, are greatly enlarged, in natural colours, upon a simple paper screen. This is a valuable aid in such subjects as nature study and biology, and the apparatus itself is extremely simple to manipulate.

In conclusion, I would advise the teacher who intends to set up a wireless apparatus to be content to take one, or at most, two courses only in a week. In fact, it is usually impossible to do otherwise, since the consent of H.M. Inspector and the Local Authority must be obtained before use of this means of teaching will be sanctioned.

The League of Nations in Training Colleges

A. M. H. HENSON, B.A.

League of Nations Union Secretary for Training Colleges

THE work that is being done in schools to interest children in the League of Nations is now having its effect in the training colleges, as boys and girls move on to them. All the university training departments and fifty-three training colleges in Great Britain have branches of the League of Nations Union and the British Universities League of Nations Society (B.U.L.N.S.), and lectures on the League are given from time to time in those colleges that have not yet formed branches. In almost every college some direct teaching is given on the League of Nations.

The activities range from an occasional speech from a visiting lecturer, through study groups to Model Assemblies. For the study groups, use is frequently made of the outlines on some dozen subjects that have been prepared by the B.U.L.N.S., and books are borrowed from the League of Nations Union Library. In at least one college a discussion group meets regularly to listen in to wireless lectures on international affairs. In another, a group meets for a class in public speaking, and in this college a Model Assembly was recently held, the success of which was largely due to the fact that

at the public-speaking class matters connected with the League of Nations were invariably discussed. Less formal activities are fancy-dress dances, when the students appear in national costumes; 'international picnics', when foreign foods are consumed; and foreign correspondence.

That very real interest is taken in the work of the League, and that students do some research into its activities are shown by the fact that for the last three or four years, several theses have been written on it. During school practice in many colleges, lessons on the League are given by the students, and questions on the League appear in most, if not in all, college examination papers. In one college, the oral history examination has taken the form of a Model Assembly.

One may safely say that most of the training colleges are now alive to the importance of the recommendations made in 1929 by the Joint Committee of Inquiry into the Teaching of the Aims and Achievements of the League of Nations. There are ample grounds for believing that many students in training colleges to-day will be well equipped to teach the lessons of world citizenship.

Picture-Statistics

GLYNN FAITHFULL

[A description of the new German work 'Gesellschaft und Wirtschaft']

THE German race has always shown remarkable thoroughness in the collection and classification of data, and an inventive genius none the less remarkable in the preparing of the results of such labour for the benefit of the world in general. A good example of the excellence of its achievements in these spheres is the 'picture-statistical' work, 'Society and Economy'. This is a series of one hundred coloured charts and diagrams which has been prepared, under the general editorship of Professor Otto Neurath, by the Museum for Sociology and Economics in Vienna, and published by the Bibliographical Institute of Leipzig. The series deals with the main features, social, economic, and political, of the ancient civilizations and, more fully, of the modern world. From one chart one may tell at a glance where the ancient Romans obtained their wheat, or their slaves; from another, what were the most important cities and the number of inhabitants in each. One may learn, without the necessity of reading, where the chief commodities of the world markets are produced and where they are consumed: what were the forms of government in the countries of Europe before the Great War, and the changes that followed: the difference between real wages paid in Philadelphia and those in London: the growth of the British Empire; and the answers to other questions too numerous to mention.

The system by which these charts have been prepared has come to be known as the *Wiener Methode*. Instead of rows of numbers, not only dull but often incomprehensible to any but a specialist in the particular subject, coloured symbols are employed to represent a certain number of human beings, of machines, or a certain quantity of a raw material. These are not enlarged or reduced to show a greater or lesser quantity as was the method in the past, but are repeated in rows. Comparison is thus greatly facilitated. The principle is that, 'to remember simplified quantities in symbol form is better than to forget exact figures.'

The diagram (actual size 18" × 13") given herewith, shows the emigration and immigration movements from and to certain countries, and is a typical example of the ingenuity with which statistics are presented in a simple and at once understandable way. Both colour (unluckily, cannot be reproduced here) and direction are used to differentiate between immigrants and emigrants. Further, those travelling by sea are represented as moving on a strip of wavy

blue, while those whose journey lies overland are walking on a straight strip of brown. Really, one need not be told what the subject is, for it is quite apparent what the figures are meant to depict. Certainly, no knowledge of the German language is required to understand fully the meaning, for the place-names, in almost every case, are sufficiently similar to their English equivalents, and the number 250,000 in the bottom left-hand corner can but be the number of persons that each figure represents. In fact, one can learn some German by studying the chart.

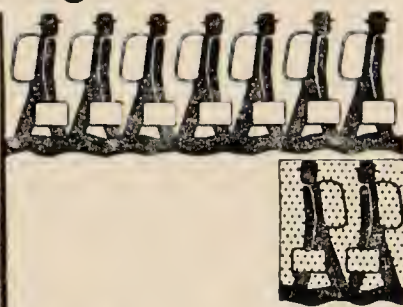
In the classroom, this portfolio should be found an invaluable asset in work with children of all ages, but especially with the younger ones. This method of presentation of knowledge is very fascinating and instructive for everyone, but it is peculiarly adapted for teaching those roughly between the ages of eight and twelve. It is a fact, fairly widely realized at the present day, that children of this age do not normally understand intellectually, but chiefly intuitively. Symbol and allegory are their natural media of expression and comprehension. One might spend several lessons giving them facts and figures which would almost certainly be forgotten, or anyway only partially remembered, which is no better or perhaps definitely worse. If, on the other hand, one can show them what one wishes to convey, in pictorial form, the general meaning will be grasped and held. The principles of the *Wiener Methode* conform to these requirements: they rely almost entirely on symbols which necessitate no explanation. Hence its immense value in work with younger children. As a good example of this use of these charts, one can take a little drawing in which two spearsmen in red oppose two and a half black archers. The only explanation necessary is that they represent the opposing armies at the battle of Plataea, the first being Greeks and the second Persians, and that the victors are coloured red (as in a number of similar drawings dealing with other battles). It is then immediately understood what was the size of the winning army compared with that of the losers, and that the Greeks must have been better soldiers, if they could win when the numbers were so against them. Furthermore, it is shown what were the weapons chiefly employed by the powers concerned. And so with the other charts; a great number of complicated inter-related facts are understood after one or two words of explanation—perhaps only by the reading of the title.

Wanderbewegung wichtiger Länder 1920-27

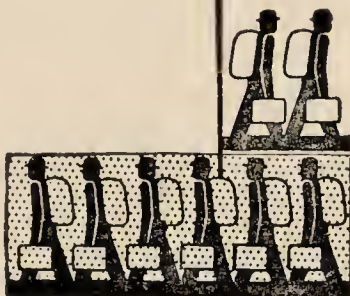
Europa

Einwanderungsüberschuss

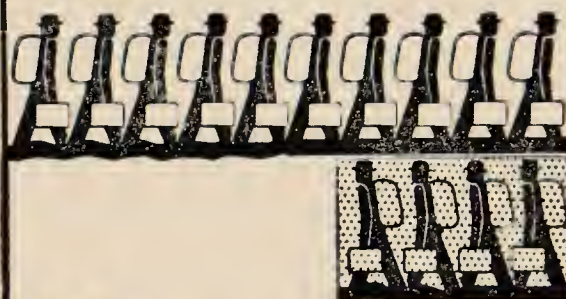
Grossbritannien
und Irland



Frankreich



Italien



Deutsches Reich



Amerika

U. S. A.



Argentinien



Jede Figur auf weissem Untergrund 250 000 Auswanderer
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über Land
über See

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Co-Education as Seen by a Parent

Rear-Admiral R. N. LAWSON

THE articles on Co-education in *The New Era* of May are of deep interest to me. They are from the point of view of educationalists or pupils. My point of view is that of a parent who has had five children at Bedales.

My claim to write is this: I have had exceptional opportunities of observing Bedalians both during and after school days. I came into touch with the school after thirty years' service in the Navy. In the Navy I was in touch with many good men and true. After retirement the younger generation, principally Bedalians, flooded my life with new experiences. So I write of experiences, not of systems or theories.

In seven different summers, 1921-1926 inclusive, and 1929, I camped with girls and boys. Ninety per cent were from Bedales. Ages varied from 11 to 27. In the earlier years—my own children and their close friends being the nucleus of the camps—the average age was about fourteen or fifteen years. In 1929 the average age was about twenty years. I had no adult helpers save from campers who had passed the age of twenty-one.

With some fifty or sixty of these Bedalians I have lived in the closest and most informal and delightful contact. What manner of people were these, the young folk whose free growth (and pruning) was (in term-time) in the garden of co-education? That is what parents want to know. If they accept co-education, what manner of men and women may they expect their children to be? Mr. Badley has in his latest article and in other works stated his ideas, his ideals, his beliefs. Has he said—could he say—in so many words, 'these children of Bedales are, in the main, the type of human being the world surely needs?' I can say so, for I am an intimate observer only, and am in no way responsible for his success. For success it is.

This must be a brief article. I could spin *New Era* readers many a yarn which might hold them. But yarn is not spun in short lengths. I must use odd rope-ends.

First, then, these are very natural young

people. One of the bothers of these discussions about co-education is that people will begin to discuss sex, as sex. We ordinary folk, when we talk about the life of a big family together, do not put primary sex questions in the forefront. We leave that to students of -isms and -ologies. All the really interesting and jolly subtle interplay between girls and boys, the give-and-take which is so essential, we discuss.

Well, surely the strength and very foundation of co-education is the broadening of family life which it provides. If all the boys came from one set of families, and all the girls from another, co-education would lose its greatest asset. Is it not clear that if Tom and his sister are at school with Jack and *his* sister, and Tom and Jack are chums, then Tom's sister is to Jack just Tom's sister, and not such a bad sort, though not (of course) quite up to Tom's mark? And Jack's sister is to Tom not in any way a charming and mysterious creature, but a good sort with limitations. A bit too clever in class sometimes, but quite hot stuff at gym (for a girl).

In camp all this was plain enough. As a member of a big family in my own childhood, I recall well enough that we boys did sometimes check the more boisterous amusements because the girls might get hurt. And the girls would certainly make an effort now and again to go near their limit lest it should be dull for the boys. So it was in co-educational camps. (Abominable word, *co-education*! Why can't we talk about Family Schools?)

I remember reproaching an older boy when I sighted two girls carrying heavy buckets of water up-hill to the camp. 'You chaps don't know how to treat the girls', says I. Help was forthcoming, of course. And the reply was very serious. 'You don't know what we think of our girls'. But I did know. Charm and mystery? Perhaps not. Respect and good fellowship and admiration? Yes.

That is what I mean by natural young people. A jolly family group, with little fallings in love here and there, no doubt. And why not? God have them in His keeping!

Trustworthy, too. In early years there were a few camp rules. In later years very few. They needed few, and their training had been in the use of freedom, and avoidance of its abuse. These folk play the straight game by you, girls and boys alike. It is best that they should make their own rules, whenever possible. There was nearly a bathing accident on one occasion, and camp rules became necessary. So a committee of four—good swimmers and bad—were given the job of drawing up rules. They retired to the cook-tent and produced five rules in fifteen minutes. These were posted on the main tent-pole. They were respected. Why not? They represented the general good sense.

There was a secluded bathing-pool in the woods where it was undesirable that girls should be after dark. Two younger girls cut things fine, and were there at dusk. They hardly understood why not. An elder girl was deputed to give them the reasons in plain English. Trustworthy people should be given good reasons. Nothing more needed.

Self-helpful and adaptable, too. Each day had its duty-half of the camp, the eldest (boy or girl) being boss. Each meal had its own cooks from the duty-half, who chose their dishes, prepared, cooked and washed up. The younger learned much from the older. We did not fare badly, even from the point of view of an elderly Victorian. Though there were occasions when masses of fried bread gave one pause for reflection.

Competent? We used to spend a few days on the road going to and from camp. A proportion rode push-bicycles, and a lorry followed at leisure, with gear and the balance of human kind. Lorry riders changed seats with cyclists as desired. One evening we stopped at a quite unknown village in Wales, and decided to camp. In less than fifty minutes a site was found and occupied, tents were up, water and milk fetched, bedding and belongings stowed, cooking stoves alight, food cooking, lorry parked, and off-duty

campers exploring the neighbourhood. The only directions given were: That field is the camp site. Drinking water is in that back yard. Milk can be had from that house.

As for physical fitness, you should see bare-legged outliers from main camp exploring Exmoor in old gym shoes day after day, sleeping gypsy-wise where evening finds them!

No room for more. But I would have the theorists and the hesitating parents to know that no man now in the fifties has found more loyal pals in the younger generation than I have.

Our public school system has been of incalculable value to the nation. But surely we have room for more than one system for the children of those who can afford to pay for an expensive education. The older system has a tradition and a stability which the newer cannot have. The newer has a sense of adventuring into the open spaces of human nature which the older lacks. Pioneers we must have. But for one pioneer there are fifty good settlers.

These children of the Family Schools are sharers in a new venture. That is an exhilarating thing, and may be also an inspiring thing. Or, contrariwise, depression and disappointment may follow exhilaration in later years.

But in school-days they are happy folk. Let Pope or Soviet say what Mr. Badley tells us they have said. Send hand-picked Cardinal and Commissar for a fortnight's visit. They shall return and report to their Masters something new of Faith and Hope. But do you credit either Soviet or Pope with any sense of our English humour? Have they any conception of how this whole education is brightened and beautified by that flicker of whimsical chaff and clean happy mockery which is not the monopoly of Bedales or any School?

They cannot have. But those of us who rejoice in it know it for what it is—gleam of an unquenchable torch tossed from generation to generation by the lasses and lads of Merrie England.

Co-Education in Adolescence

FRANCIS H. KNIGHT

Secretary of the Central Education Committee of the Society of Friends, London

IN the May issue of the *New Era*, considerable space was given up to the pros and cons of Co-education; but in many cases the arguments were of the nature of very general statements, and it appeared to me that two or three important points were altogether overlooked, as for example, the relationships on the staff, and between the staff and the pupils.

In the main, however, the various writers assume that co-education is based on natural laws, and that the objections mostly concern small differences in organization. Mr. B. A. Howard, for example, says that it follows natural laws and therefore . . . But does it? Mr. Badley says it is training *for* living *by* living; but is it? I am quite certain he does not wish to imply that boys and girls at school should marry as Romeo and Juliet proposed to do, at the ages of fourteen and thirteen respectively! Indeed, he says as much. It is good to train for living by living, but does co-education promote this in the best possible way? The arguments do not go back sufficiently to first principles.

Now I suppose we are all agreed that the family presents the finest natural relationship. And I further take it that we mean a good old-fashioned family with about half a dozen boys and as many girls in it. Modern one-child or two-children families are certainly unnatural. Well, in such an old-fashioned family, the little children all play together with no thought of sex, take sides and quarrel in divisions which are based on any other criterion than that. But when they begin to be adolescent, the sexes drift apart; the boys have no use for their sisters, prefer big, herd games, pirates and red indians; whilst the girls dislike their brothers' vigorous ways and prefer to play their own plays, plays which are preparing them for *their* lives by living. The boys and girls meet for meals, where they just tolerate, but take very little notice of each other. Then at about eighteen years of age they begin to take a new interest in one another—they are looking for mates. This all seems to me to suggest

co-education in the primary stage (up to eleven plus) and at the university; but hardly at what we may call the boarding-school stage. Scouting is admittedly one of the discoveries of the age, and appears to be on sound lines, if my contention is right, in leaving girls to run a separate organization.

The reply to this must take some such form as that in future we want men and women to live exactly similar lives, and therefore do not want girls to play with dolls and boys with cricket bats. ('Guns' is a side-issue, which we had better not pursue now.) In that case, perhaps the State will nurse the children and actual motherhood will be made as little of as possible. I only want to suggest that the first principles bearing on co-education are not yet by any means as clear as some people assume.

When we come to practice, it does appear to me that co-education wins all along the line. No people who have tried it ever want to return to single-sex schools, as far as I can learn. And modern young people seem to me far happier in their free and unembarrassed relations with one another than those of my generation.

So I want to suggest a co-education for adolescents, which leaves the sexes very free to see practically nothing of each other, but so arranged that a boy might bump into a girl at any passage corner. B. A. Howard alone hit this note when he said, 'the practice followed, therefore, is neither to force together nor to separate'. This seems to me so important as to be worth all the other theories put together. As just one example, let them sit at meals by ages, alphabetically, by forms, houses, pure choice, anyhow, but *not* alternately boy-girl-boy-girl. Do not let sex enter your thoughts or their thoughts in deciding where they should sit. As far as possible, avoid all regulations as to when they can meet and when they cannot—simply do not bother about it. Do not think the system a failure if they practically never meet, as long as they can if they want to, and can do it without being in any way conspicuous.

The Magic Carpet

East and West Adventure Together

TRUDA T. WEIL, M.A.

Director of the Fellowship Summer Travel School; teacher of Creative Dramatics, Junior and Senior High Schools, Bronxville, New York; Chairman of the Committee on Experimental Education of the Teachers' Union of New York

CAN a child grasp the international idea? It is because we believe that it is possible, it is because we believe that it is essential, that the Fellowship Summer Travel School has been founded.

The plan of the Fellowship Travel School is the outgrowth of the work and the spirit of the original Fellowship School of Gland, Canton de Vaud, Switzerland, whose headquarters we occupy. The Summer Travel School brings together a group of boys and girls of various nationalities. Strange though it may seem, it is the differences in nationality rather than the similarities which appear to bind the members of our group to another.

In the eyes of the children, the magic carpet is the symbol of our journey from the new world to the old, from the Orient to Europe, where early in July we meet for eight brief weeks of adventuring together along new paths, geographical and spiritual.

The basic activities programme of the school is in many ways more suggestive of that of an American summer camp. It includes swimming, tennis, games, arts and crafts, dramatics, both interpretive and folk dancing, hiking, cycling and boating. The school factor is chiefly represented by the attention given to languages, Italian, German, and especially French. In each case, the method of teaching is one which meets the natural interests of the child. The direct conversational approach is used in all cases and in French is supplemented by close contact with the French-Swiss members of the staff, the French-speaking children in the school, the villagers of Gland, tradesmen and visitors.

But the travel school brings an experience beyond that which either the usual camp or school can offer, in the shape not only of day trips to points of natural beauty and historic interest, but also of a ten-day trip into the high Alps,

where one can climb from sunny greenness to the snow line in a morning and return to a game of croquet in the evening after cutting ice steps to cross a glacier and 'luge-ing' at its edge.

Each day at Gland, after breakfast dishes have been washed and rooms straightened and freshened with flowers, which grow in profusion in the school garden, there is a morning meeting to which our thirty-five boys and girls, irrespective of whether they be eight or sixteen years old, and our staff of eighteen, irrespective of whether they be teachers, or gardener, or cook, come. Here for half an hour we discuss our trip of the week. If it be to La Mer de Glace at Chamonix, France, the staff geologist will give a detailed talk on glaciers. There follows the story of how a guide dropped a ladder down into a crevasse of La Mer de Glace and how it took forty-four years for it to appear again. From this is computed the number of feet per year that La Mer de Glace moves. Several mornings of questions in French and English from children and staff follow. When we reach La Mer de Glace our intelligence on the subject enhances our enjoyment of the glacier which rests in the shadow of Mont Blanc. Or it may be Byron and the true history of the Castle of Chillon which occupy us before we sail up the lake to Montreux. Or it may be the League of Nations and the International Labour Bureau at Geneva which hold our attention. Our discussion of the League was helped considerably by a talk delivered in the glass room by Mr. Benjamin Gehrig of the Mandate Division, who patiently answered innumerable questions. To help us understand the International Labour Bureau, a member of the Japanese delegation met us in the assembly room for an intimate conference. Or the morning meeting brings accounts of experiences by members of the school—how Eldon rowed five and a half miles across the

Lake to Thonon, France, only to find that he had no passport! Or Michael relates an interesting encounter with some Swiss peasants on a cycling trip to Saint Cergue; or Peter recounts the experiences on La Dôle, a peak in the Juras where twenty-three of us camped for the night in an ancient stone chalet with naught but the firelight from a brazier sunk deep into the floor to light our loft-bedroom and send shadows racing over the thick walls. Peter tells too of the life of the Swiss cowherd and his wife who live in

will be a journey to Italy—to Vicenza, Verona, Padua and Venice! Last year our first stop on the Alpine journey was Berne. We excited much comment among the inhabitants, for it was quite clear as we trotted through the town with our knapsacks and alpenstocks that we were an international group. The four little girls from the Malay States, and Joaquim, our ten-year-old Chinese boy, were the centre of widest interest. As a matter of fact these Orientals were the most popular members of the group. They secretly



We Sun Ourselves after our Swim

the chalet and how their clean abode is separated from those of the pigs and cows by partitions, through which during the night come squealing and lowing to mingle with our own imprecations in every tongue that the Fellowship Summer Travel School can furnish as we try to readjust our luxury-accustomed frames to the little hay and much board.

Many morning meetings were given over last summer to preparation for our ten-day trip, which is to be repeated this year for those who are New Fellows. For the Old Fellows there

enjoyed the amazement of Swiss folk who naïvely marvelled at Orientals who spoke fluent French. We arrived in Berne on the evening of July 31st in order to participate in the August 1st celebration of the national holiday which commemorates the first step towards Switzerland's unity, when the three cantons of Uri, Unterwald and Schwiz met on Mount Rütli in 1291. August 1st was a busy day for us with services and song at the Cathedral in the afternoon, and the lantern procession in the evening to the Rosengarten, from whose height

we looked down upon a city glorified by coloured flares, and up at the Alps, where a dozen bonfires burned, reminiscent of that first signal on Rütli. We spent the next day at museums, studying the lake-dwellers, and at the Bundesrath, hearing from the lips of an old Swiss guide the story of his country's development. We lived in an ancient stone hotel, the impression of the winding stairs and quaint facilities of which was enhanced by a host who welcomed us with the famous Swiss hospitality.

From there, via train, lake-steamer and moun-

camping in the same fashion. It was our good fortune, too, to meet three German Wander-vögel, who spent two evenings telling us of their youth movement and of economic changes in their country, and who sang and played old German *Lieder* as well as the songs of modern German youth. When we left Grindelwald they accompanied us to the train, serenaded us and promised to visit us at the Summer Travel School at Gland, a promise which they kept. Over lake and land again we made our way to Altdorf, in which the Tell legends are still



We Visit the Reformation Monument in Geneva

tain-rail, we reached Grindelwald after a charming encounter on the Thunersee with some English Girl Guides with whom we fraternized, and who sang old English folk songs for us. At Grindelwald we went to a youth camp *Herberg*, and in immaculate dormitories with unbleached muslin over hay for beds, we slept in clear view of Wetterhorn, Schreckhorn, Eiger and Mönch. Five days we spent in crossing glaciers, climbing mountains, and winding through gorges, coming back at night to our base, which we shared with a Swiss school of boys and girls who were

vivid, where the townspeople were giving their triennial performance of Schiller's great play.

We are always glad, in spite of our adventures afield, to return to Gland, to athletics, dramatics used extensively in connection with our Sunday evening non-sectarian services, music intimately associated with folk legends of all nations, cycling trips to neighbouring towns, and other activities close to the heart of a child. The spirit of internationalism pervades all and becomes a strong, though unconscious, fac-

tor in group moral. Friendships develop which bind together Ireland and Switzerland, Malay and America, China and Germany, in the minds of youngsters and adults alike. But besides this spirit of internationalism, we have another outstanding feature—our natural gravitation to co-operative household management. Our cook, gardener, and housekeeper, are no less and no greater in the eyes of us all than our swimming, French, and craft masters and mistresses. Our self-dependence in helping to perform their tasks makes us all one.

On our last evening together during the summer of 1930, we gathered about a camp fire on the shores of Lake Geneva. Mont Blanc was barely visible in the dusk. Coloured lanterns

glowed brighter in the darkness as night came on, and there we were together, China, England, the Malay States, the United States, Ireland, Italy, Switzerland, and Germany, silently pledging our friendship to each other. There was an international programme, not so designed, but a natural development of a real situation.

The success of the Fellowship Summer Travel School is, we feel, largely due to Emma Thomas, the Englishwoman who founded the Fellowship School ten years ago, whose ideals of peace and brotherhood she makes a living experience, and whose presence during the summer gives an inspiration that can be supplied by no one else.

The Bookshelf

Books Reviewed in this Issue—see page 295

GROUNDWORK OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

AUX SOURCES DE LA VITALITÉ ALLEMANDE

THE TASK OF HAPPINESS

LETTERS TO SCHOOL-MASTERS

THE CREATIVE HOME

THE IDEAL MANAGEMENT OF PREGNANCY

RICHARD THE LIONHEART

STORIES FROM EVERYWHERE

CAREERS AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Books Received

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF HEREDITY. *By Paul Popenoe. Williams and Wilkins Co., Baltimore, U.S.A. Balliere, Tindall and Cox, London. 4s. 6d.*

THE QUESTIONING CHILD. *By Angelo Patri. A discussion of child training and child problems, addressed to the general public.*

CHILDREN'S DIET. *By Charles E. Hecht. Food Education Society, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1. 3½d. post free.*

A GUIDE TO STARTING A BOYS' CLUB, *with suggestions on management. The National Association of Boys' Clubs, 27 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1. 6d.*

A CATALOGUE OF INDIVIDUAL OCCUPATIONS AND KINDERGARTEN MATERIALS. *Philip & Tacey, 69 High Street, Fulham, London, S.W.6. Post free on application.*

NATURE STUDY PICTURES—SET 2 (of twelve). *Silas Birch Ltd., 23 Southampton Street, London, W.C.1. 2s. 6d. the set.*

MODERN MASTERS OF ETCHING. No. 26 : MARTIN LEWIS. *Pictorial interpretation of characteristic New York life. The Studio Ltd., 44 Leicester Square, London, W.C.1, and W. E. Rudge, 475 Fifth Avenue, New York City. 5s.*

THE ENGLISH LITERARY CIRCULAR FOR CONTINENTAL READERS. *Quarterly. Editor: Paul Hempel, Halle (Saale), Germany. RM. 2 per annum, post free, payable in advance. For Germany, Postscheckkonto Leipzig 2049; other countries, stamps or P.O. No subscription through other booksellers. The English Book Department, Buchhandlung des Waisenhauses, Halle (Saale), Germany.*

Notes on Mechanical Aids

Exhibition of Mechanical Aids to Learning, London, September 1931

The British Institute of Adult Education, in co-operation with the British Association for the Advancement of Science and the Commission on Educational and Cultural Films, is arranging an Exhibition of Mechanical Aids to Learning, from September 22nd to 29th, to be held at the Imperial Institute, French Institute and Science Museum, South Kensington, London. The Exhibition will be held in conjunction with the Centenary Meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, forming part of its official programme. A similar Exhibition was held in September 1930 at the London School of Economics, and the success of this first venture had led the way for the Institute's second and more comprehensive Exhibition.

It will bring together the latest scientific inventions which can be used in the service of education, including exhibits of apparatus connected with television, broadcasting, the film (silent and sound), the gramophone, the epidiascope and the lantern. Arrangements are also being made for a series of lectures and discussions on the value of these aids to learning, and demonstrations of the types of apparatus will be given under classroom conditions. A complete catalogue of the exhibits, with notes upon their educational uses, is being prepared, and will be available for visitors. Catalogue, price 6d., from the B.I.A.E., 39 Bedford Square, W.C.1.



The Birmingham Cinema Inquiry

In May 1930, a Cinema Inquiry Committee was set up under Sir Charles Grant Robertson, M.A., LL.D., C.V.O., Principal of Birmingham University, England, with the object of endeavouring to persuade the Home Secretary to institute an impartial inquiry into the prevalent type of film, and the baneful effect of that type on children and adolescents. The Committee met with influential support, not infrequently in quarters which it had not anticipated. Later, a scientific and comprehensive inquiry was undertaken, and the Report of this is now to be had in booklet form, price 2d., postage extra, from the Hon. Secretary, 316 Hagley Road, Edgbaston, Birmingham, and B. John Woods, Esq., 85 Russell Road, Hall Green, Birmingham. Confirmation of the evidence of the inquiry are still reaching the Committee daily from magistrates, the clergy, parents of every class, business men, working lads and girls, and teachers of every grade.

Sir Charles Grant Robertson, in his Foreword to the booklet, says:—

We are not 'prohibitionists', 'kill-joys', or 'cranks'. We believe that this great instrument which modern science has given us can be, indeed is bound to be, a tremendous and inexhaustible source of recreation and education. For this very reason we are determined to persist in our endeavour until the abuses and dangers—intellectual,

physical, and moral—particularly for children and adolescents, which, at present, make what might be an instrument of untold good into an instrument of incalculable and irreparable harm, have been extirpated.

The impartial and comprehensive public inquiry for which we ask, will come, because an organized public opinion will insist on it; and when it does, it will confirm up to the hilt what the reader will find set out in these pages.

The answers to the *questionnaire*, which was addressed to children and young people between the ages of six and nineteen, are intensely interesting, and not less startling. The four main replies received from 1,439 Birmingham children between the ages of eight and fourteen, to the question, Why do you like going? are: for interest; for amusement; to pass the time; for thrills. One boy of thirteen said he goes 'for beauty'. Comedy seems to hold the supreme place in the children's affections; after that, adventure and detective films. An arresting feature is the recurring emphasis upon war, crime, and what they term 'fighting pictures' and 'frightening pictures'. Many boys said that the pictures taught them 'how to fight' and 'how to shoot', and one little girl offered to show the Commissioner 'how to strangle people'. Many children said that the pictures keep them from sleeping.

On the other hand, many children said they have gained much general knowledge from films, also facts about personal hygiene and appearance; what 'life really is'; 'a lot about murdering and love'; much about crime and violence and 'gangsters'. There are serious references to imitation: they have learnt to shoot through their pockets; to rob; to 'fraud innocent people'; to hang and to strangle (themselves or others).

In answer to the question, How do you think the cinema could be improved? some of the suggestions are: Don't let the audience talk so much; no smoking (much emphasized); no babies allowed in; no cruelty to animals; no 'rude' pictures (many references); 'film actresses should be made to dress more decenter'; more news, 'comics', and pictures like *Robinson Crusoe*. A few children, to get round the Home Office regulations, said they asked 'anyone in the crowd' to take them to adult films.

There is no space, unfortunately, to give any of the highly instructive replies received from boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and nineteen; nor those from adults in many walks of life.

At the end of the booklet is a useful and informative summary of reports of visits to cinemas, and short lists of films satisfactory and unsatisfactory for children.



The California (U.S.A.) Congress of Parents and Teachers

This Congress maintains a film pre-view committee, which gives monthly film evaluations

of motion pictures presented at the Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences in Hollywood. Each picture is reviewed by a committee of five trained pre-viewers from two districts, and by such teachers as are able to appear on Saturday mornings. The training of the pre-viewers is done through an extension course of a local university. The reports are released once a month through the Parent-Teacher Magazine, *Child Welfare*, 8 Grove Street, Winchester, Mass.

Other groups, such as the Federated Women's Club, a Catholic Association, and a group of university clubwomen, attend the pre-views, and it is understood that they also report to their individual organizations.

None of the groups has any authority to enforce its will either upon the industry or upon the public.

The reports usually come under three headings: Adults; 14-18 Years; 8-14 Years.



Zentralinstitut für Erziehung und Unterricht Commission on Educational and Cultural Films

The Zentralinstitut has for its object to be a collecting, distributing and working centre for all bodies concerned in education and teaching. The Film Department was opened in March 1919, in the first instance as an organization for the examination and approval of educational films. But since 1924 its activities have also included the examination of films for amusement only. There are about eighty examiners of films, drawn from all kinds of occupations, who receive appointments for three years, on the recommendations of a committee. The Film Department functions as part of the machinery of government only in so far as the certificate of recognition issued by it and stamped on (or affixed to) the films certified by it to be artistic, or to contribute to popular or higher education, entitles the users of them to reductions in, or remission of, the entertainment tax levied by the Federal Government (Reich). This particular Film Department is authorized to deal only with films submitted to it by the film examination centre (Filmprüfstelle) of Berlin. All films made in Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden and Hesse are under the surveillance of the *Filmprüfstelle* in Munich and are further examined with a view to recognition, as educational, by the *Lichtbildstelle* in Munich.

The Film Department publishes, from time to time, *Mitteilungen* (bulletins), in which information is given as to the granting and withholding of recognition to films. Further, as occasion requires, lists of the films recognized by the Film Department are issued.

The Film Department does not produce any films of its own, but confines itself to examination. Neither does it keep any library of films or have any organization for distributing them to schools or other institutions; but the attention of various types of school is drawn to films most suitable for them.

Schools receive government grants for the purchase of projectors and hire of films.

An Experiment in Sound Recording

We are making experiments at the County High School, Altrincham, Cheshire, in gramophone recording, and I think one incidental result will interest teachers who have a 'local accent' problem. The experiments have been conducted by some boys who are enthusiastic radio experts. Our activities began when it was found necessary to relay an important speech from an inadequate school hall to an overflow meeting in the gymnasium. So satisfied were we with our skill, and with each other's company, that we styled ourselves the Sound Research Group, and looked around for other fields to conquer.

There are on the market several types of gramophone recording equipment, which, by using a microphone and suitable amplifier, will cut very passable records on aluminium discs. We are at present modifying and improving our apparatus with a definite educational purpose. During our first test, a member of the group was installed in the 'studio' and ordered to 'keep on talking' until further orders. The record being completed, we played it over to him. A look of horror spread across his face.

'Oo 'ek!' he said, 'I never knew I spoke Cheshire!'

I suggest to educationists that there is a considerable gleam of hope in this method. Teachers who have to deal with ugly speech will know that a realization of its ugliness in the pupil is more than half the battle. Next term, we hope to apply the acid-test of the classroom to the theory, and perhaps we shall have more to tell.

RONALD GOW



The attention of readers is drawn to an article by Mr. J. Fairgrieve, M.A., Lecturer and Tutor in Geography in the London Day Training College, on 'The Use of Broadcasting in Teaching Geography in Schools', which appeared in the March 1931 issue of *Geography*. Also to Inquiry Pamphlet No. 2, 'The Evidence Regarding Broadcasting Geography Lessons', compiled by the Geography Committee of the Central Council for School Broadcasting, under the chairmanship of Sir Percy Nunn, Principal of the London Day Training College. This pamphlet, price 6d., may be obtained from the B.B.C., Savoy Hill, London, W.C.2.



The Film-Slides mentioned by V. F. Searson in his article, 'Geography in the Elementary School' (July *New Era*), may be obtained from Visual Information Service, 168a Battersea Bridge Road, London, S.W.11.



Firms having Projectors for Use in Schools and Educational Institutions

16mm and 9.5mm PROJECTORS

A. British

Ensign Ltd., 88-89 High Holborn, London W.C.1. Hire purchase terms can be arranged.

B. American

Kodak Ltd., Kingsway, London, W.C.2.

Bell-Howell Co., Morley House, Regent Street, London, W.1.

J. H. Dallmeyer Ltd., 31 Mortimer Street, London, W.1.

C. German

Agfa Ltd., Vintry House, Queen Street Place, London, E.C.4.

BOLEX 16mm and 9.5mm.

D. Swiss

The Cinex Co., 70 High Holborn, London, W.C.1.

E. French

Pathescope Ltd., 5 Lisle Street, London, W.1.

[*The above list supplied by courtesy of the Commission on Educational and Cultural Films, 15 Taverton Street, London, W.C.1.*]

Ernst Leitz (London), 20 Mortimer Street, London, W.1, maker of the Leitz Optical Projection apparatus (Epidiascope), provides large and small epidiascopes. Schools are recommended to send for these catalogues: School Microscopes; Lanterns for screen distances of 10 to 65 feet; Educational Micro-Projection Apparatus Xb for magnifications up to 3500—an apparatus which saves eye-strain by throwing the object under the microscope on to the screen,

so that a whole class may examine one object at the same time; Optical Benches for Schools. Technical representatives travel all over the British Isles; they can arrange demonstrations for the purpose of practical tests.

**Films, Slides, Film-Slides, and Lanterns**

Community Service Ltd., 1 Montague Street, London, W.C.1, hire out to schools, by special arrangement, travel films belonging to government organizations—New Zealand, Malaya, India, Germany, Norway, Switzerland, South Holland. Many of these are free of charge. The Service has also educational films in its own stock for hire, including films on travel, nature study, industries, geography. Schools are recommended to state their needs to the Service, which will then draw up a suitable programme, and supply all particulars.

All these films can be run off a school's own electrical circuit, so that no special installation is needed. Someone can be sent with any film to explain it as it is run off.

Slides and lanterns can be sent out in the same way.

H. Luscombe Toms, The Slide House Ltd., 52 Queen Victoria Street, London, E.C.4. Catalogue on application. Lantern Slides made and coloured from own originals.

In the July issue of *The New Era* Professor Paul Otlet's Museum, Le Palais Mondial in Brussels, should have been included under the heading *A Few Aids to Geography Teaching*, page 251.

International Notes

The Sixth International Conference

of the NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP will be held at Nice during the first part of August 1932. The general theme of the Conference is 'Education and Social Change'. The President will be M. Paul Langevin, Professor at the Collège de France. Among the speakers will be Professor Sir Percy Nunn (London University), Dr. C. H. Becker (formerly Minister of Education, Prussia), Dr. André Siegfried (author of *America Comes of Age* and *England's Crisis*), and, it is hoped, Dr. John Dewey.

A council for the preparation of the German delegation to the Conference has been formed in Germany, and consists of Dr. Gertrud Bäumer of Berlin, Ministerialrat Heinrich Becker of Berlin, Prof. Alois Fischer of Munich, Magisträts-Schulrat E. Müller of Dortmund, Prof. Dr. Hermann Nohl of Göttingen, Frau Martha Schmidt of Karlsruhe, Pater Prof. Schröteler of Düsseldorf, Ministerialrat Dr. Ulich of Dresden, Oberstudiendirektor Dr. Weinstock of Frankfurt/Main, Prof. Dr. Erich Weniger of Hamburg-Altona, and Herr Otto Wommelsdorff of Pinneberg, near Hamburg.

A Handbook for Students

has been prepared by the New Education Fellowship. It is an effort to co-ordinate information on education in England, and to list in concise form the facilities available for students who wish to learn something of education in England. The first part consists of a short description of the organization of education in England and Wales; the remaining portion of the book shows useful lists of reference books, educational libraries, educational associations and the services they offer, conferences and lectures, accommodation for visitors and so forth. Obtainable from the New Education Fellowship, 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1. Price 7d. post free (15 cents).

The New Education fellowship in Poland

in co-operation with the Slavonic Federation of Teachers Associations, is organizing an Educational Conference in Warsaw from 1st to 5th July. The Conference is under the patronage of His Excellency M. Venceslas Girsas of Czechoslovakia, His Excellency M. Vladimir Robeff of Bulgaria, His Excellency M. Branko Lazarevic of Yugoslavia, and His Excellency M. Slawomir Czerwiński of Poland. It is hoped that one of the outcomes of the Conference will be the establishment of a Slavonic Bureau for New Education.

International Children's Hostel in London

Early in August St. John's Lodge, Regent's Park, will be opened as a meeting place for the children of the world. It is hoped that children will be in occupation all the year round. The only condition is that

children shall represent a school, and be in charge of teachers from that school. The hostel is intended for boys and girls of all nations, ranging from about twelve to nineteen years of age.

Some readers may not know of the existence of 'Fairy Court', a large house ideally situated in Shanklin, Isle of Wight, which has been adapted to receive fifty children at a time. 'Fairy Court' is managed and conducted by a small committee of London teachers.

Full particulars of both hostels may be obtained from the School Journey Association, 35 Parkview Road, Addiscombe, Croydon, Surrey.

Films in Schools

America—An inquiry undertaken by the Department of Commerce to ascertain the extent to which the film is used to teach various subjects in 517 American schools, has resulted in the following figures: art films 2 per cent; physical training films 7.22 per cent; natural science films 26.18 per cent; mathematical films 0.52 per cent; films for teaching English 4.13 per cent; films for teaching manual labour 4.87 per cent; domestic economy films 4.52 per cent, agricultural films 1.72 per cent.

The psychological and educational research division of Los Angeles schools has come to the conclusion, as the result of a detailed inquiry, that knowledge acquired by pupils with the aid of the cinema is 15 per cent in excess of that acquired from oral teaching alone.

Austria—In Austria there are forty-six cinemas exclusively reserved for school projection. Fourteen of these are in Vienna.

Brazil—In the State of Santo Spirito training colleges and high schools have been presented with projectors, and the towns have been requested to hold weekly cinema shows for children in accordance with programmes laid down by the competent central department.

Czechoslovakia—The Czechoslovakia Confederation of Intellectual Workers has recommended the use of films for modern language teaching and phonetics (the position of the mouth in the pronunciation of syllables, diphthongs, and so on). Their report mentions that films of this kind have already proved highly successful in deaf and dumb institutions. The report rules out the use of the cinema in pure mathematics, but recommends it for applied mathematics, where demonstrations by means of animated drawings can be of the greatest value.

Germany—In Hesse film-teaching has so developed that two new cinema training centres have been

established for teachers, one at Mainz, and the other at Darmstadt. The Government has devoted substantial credits to the introduction of the cinema into schools, and approximately 11,000 German schools have now adopted films as an aid to teaching.



Slides and Films on Germany

The Anglo-German Academic Bureau is now able to offer a series of lantern slides and films dealing with Germany. Sets of slides on German youth hostels, theatre, student life, on Goethe, on German landscape and sports can be obtained. The sets consist of about fifty-five slides each.

Besides these slides there are three films, one on the Oberammergau Passion Plays, the second on the German youth hostels (about one and a quarter hours in length), and the third entitled *Das Blumenwunder* (The Miracle of Flowers).

Das Blumenwunder was first shown in England on the occasion of the 1930 social meeting of the Anglo-German Academic Bureau at the University of London, University College, and at the request of many teachers it was kept in England for another few months and is now at the disposal of English schools. It shows the growth and development of plants, with striking examples of special scientific features in plant life, and, in slow motion, the growth of various plants.

The slides can be obtained at a charge of 10s. and the films at 2 guineas, except that of Oberammergau, which is 1 guinea, delivered free from London. Return carriage of the films and slides must be prepaid. The staff of the Bureau would gladly deliver lectures on the subjects treated in the films and slides. Details from The Anglo-German Academic Bureau, 58 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.



Great Britain

The Middlesex Experiments in 'Talkies'—The first attempt to determine the value of the use of talking pictures as part of the educational system of Great Britain has been begun by a committee consisting of representatives of the National Union of Teachers and the Middlesex Education Authorities.

Fifteen schools in all have been selected for the experiment, sixteen films of an educational nature have been carefully selected and divided into four groups, and each group will be shown once at each school at four different times. Pupils from 8 to 14 years of age will take part in the experiment.

A report on the experiment will be issued which, in addition to a detailed consideration of the extent of the future use of talking pictures in schools, will also give details as to the reactions of both teachers and pupils.



Hungary

For the last twenty years an instructional film producing company, the Pedagógiai Filmgyár, has existed at Budapest for the special purpose of supplying schools with cinema programmes. The

town council of Budapest has made film-teaching obligatory in all schools. Before being sent out to the schools each cinema programme is submitted for the approval of representatives of the teaching profession.

Attached to the Pedagógiai Filmgyár are two experimental theatres. One section is specially engaged in making trick films and animated drawings for demonstrations in mathematics, science, and chemistry.



Norway

In Norway the cinema as an instrument of teaching has been popularized and encouraged by the cinema theatres. In 1919 the National Cinema Union circularized the Norwegian educational authorities asking their opinion concerning the introduction of the cinema into schools, enclosing at the same time a catalogue of projecting apparatus and a list of available teaching films.

In 1919-1920 the city of Oslo voted in its budget a credit of 100,000 crowns for cinematography for educational purposes.



Spain

An interesting experiment in film-teaching was carried out during 1929-1930 at the Secondary Teachers' Training College, Madrid. The films used dealt with geography, art, economics, and folklore of different Spanish provinces.

(Acknowledgment for the notes on Hungary, Norway and Spain is due to the International Review of Educational Cinematography, Via Lazzaro Spallanzani 1, Rome.)



South Africa

A Friends' School for South Africa—Members of the Society of Friends from all parts of South Africa met in January to discuss the opening of a Friends' School which shall be co-educational and which shall have the Christian outlook on racial relationships. Black and white would co-operate in the life of the community, though probably for some time the school would have only white pupils. A beautiful site has been found at 'Uplands', above Pietermaritzburg, Natal. Round it are nearly 40 acres of grounds full of beautiful flowers and shrubs. Funds are urgently needed in order that the estate may be purchased and the buildings equipped. The sum of £5,250 has already been contributed or promised—another £9,250 is still needed.



Sweden

Education Conference—A conference on new education for Scandinavian teachers will be held at Vidtskovle, Skane, from 1st to 5th August. It is called under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship. Details from Fröken E. Edelstam, Eriksbergsgatan 15, Stockholm.

Switzerland

The Graduate Institute of International Studies has issued its programme for 1931-32. The Institute was founded at Geneva in 1927 and depends at present for its financial support on the Rockefeller Foundation, on the Canton of Geneva, and the Swiss Confederation. The Institute was founded to meet the long-felt need of a permanent school of international study and instruction is now being given in political, legal, economic, and social subjects of an international character.



Correspondent Wanted

Herr Julius Neumann, Stapfurterstr. 1 a¹, Magdeburg, Germany, teacher in a Central school, would like to correspond with an English teacher. (Herr Neumann writes English as well as German.) Will any interested reader kindly write to Herr Neumann direct?



India

The annual *Survey of Education in India in 1928-29* quotes the statement of an inspectress in the Bombay Presidency that 'boys' schools still absorb what seems an undue proportion of the funds, and there is little improvement in the accommodation provided for girls' schools'. It is reported from one province that most of the district board schools for girls are lodged in badly built, ill-ventilated little houses 'where it is impossible to stop for more than an hour or so on account of the smell from the open drains'.

New School for Boys—In July Dr. M. S. Mehta opened a new school for boys at Udaipur, India. The school, which is named Vidya Bhawan, will be both day and boarding, and will be run on modern lines and will endeavour to embody all that is best in modern educational theory and practice.



Cizek Summer Cards

A new set of Cizek cards has just been issued consisting of ten cards designed by a 14-year-old pupil in Professor Cizek's juvenile art class. Particulars from the Austrian Junior Red Cross, Vienna I, Stubenring 1.



An Autumn Cruise

On October 2nd the Canadian Pacific Liner 'Empress of Australia', a magnificent oil-burning vessel of 22,000 tons, will leave Southampton on a delightful three weeks' cruise to the Mediterranean. An interesting itinerary has been arranged. Visits will be made to Ceuta, Palma, Ajaccio, Susa, Monte Carlo, Barcelona, Algiers, Casablanca etc. The 'Empress of Australia', popularly known as the 'Dreamship of Cruises', is famous the world over for her steadiness and comfort. She has a Pompeian Swimming Pool, Ballroom, Sports Deck, Gymnasium, and so on. Full particulars may be obtained from the Cruise Department, Canadian Pacific, 62-65 Charing Cross, London, S.W.1.

Nursery School Association of Great Britain, 32 Bloomsbury Street, London, W.C.1

The strongest arguments for open-air nursery schools are to be found now, and will be for some years to come, in the conditions under which thousands of little children live. First the real slum house, often dark, damp, insanitary, verminous, and surrounded by others which are decrepit and unwholesome. Then there is the house which shelters perhaps seven or eight families, and where water and sanitary conveniences are shared. Life has none of the privacy which family life demands. Many a young married couple is living 'in rooms' to-day. Sometimes children are counted an 'encumbrance', and are a bar to tenancy; when they are allowed, it is often only on sufferance. If the children are sent out to play, they are in danger of street traffic; and in any case, the dust of the pavement and the refuse of the gutter, the language and ways of the neighbourhood, all menace the health and development of their bodies and characters. Harassed by her struggle with life, and with poverty, the mother is often nervy and irritable—by no means the best guardian of her own child. Where these conditions still exist local authorities have an urgent duty in making provision for nursery schools.

Under the Housing Act of 1930 they have a new opportunity, for whole areas may be mapped out for demolition or for improvement, and where either of these is done there is likely to be a clearing of sites and an opening out of space which might be used for the simple building and garden which are required for an open-air nursery school: an oasis in the old neighbourhood. In the new housing estates the careless observer might think that nursery schools are no longer necessary. 'Each house has a little garden, a bathroom, and the conveniences of a real home,' he says. 'The roads are wide, there is no overcrowding.'

Nevertheless, the need exists. For even here, owing to high rents, there is often sub-letting and the old problem of two families under one roof; even here there is unemployment and poverty, and perhaps a mother who goes out to work; even here there are motor-cars on the roads. Here, too, there is a very strong argument for the nursery school as a bond of neighbourliness among many mothers who have suddenly been transferred to the same locality, cut off from their old associations and left to build up, as best they may, some kind of new community life. What better centre could there be for this new community than the nursery school, where the mothers are drawn together by their common interest, and through the mothers' club or guild find a new and augmenting purpose—to help in the building of a generation of healthy, happy children?

We must not rest satisfied with any housing scheme that overlooks the needs of the pre-school child, but must regard the open-air nursery school as one of the first requirements of those beings for whom the houses are being built.

EFFIE RYLE

Book Reviews

Groundwork of Educational Psychology. By James S. Ross, M.A., B.Sc. (Harrap & Co., London. 5s.)

This book has the merit of doing precisely that which it sets out to do; it gives, in less than 300 pages, a concise and clear account of those parts of modern psychology that are relevant to the study of education. It claims no originality of doctrine, representing rather 'the reaction to familiar doctrines on one whose main business is to teach' educational psychology to one-year students. For this purpose, and for the use of the general reader who would see modern psychological teaching as a whole, with its various schools and doctrines in their proper place and relation, the work is a thoroughly useful and most welcome production.

The various chapters are followed by 'suggestions for Further Reading', these being very judiciously selected; so that the average student can really derive some benefit from them. The budding teacher who reads the *Groundwork* first carefully, and then turns to the special works recommended, will find that he can keep his feet even in the difficult parts of this somewhat bewildering science; and if, after reading as directed, he returns again to the *Groundwork*, he will appreciate the wisdom and the judgment of his guide.

Necessarily, the work has very definite limitations. It covers such a very wide field that it deals rather summarily with various contending doctrines; and the general reader, who will hardly fail to find some reference to whatever psychological doctrine he may be seeking information upon, may feel also that it is rather baldly stated, unreservedly criticized, and summarily dismissed. But such a textbook can do no more. Mr. Ross has been eminently fair and sound in his exposition, and has avoided a vagueness of explanation that may not give offence but gives in consequence little help.

We have read the book with pleasure and recommend it without hesitation.

J. Murdoch

Aux Sources de la Vitalité Allemande. By Professeur A. Vulliod. (Rieder & Co., 7 Place St. Sulpice, Paris.)

This book on the reform of education in Germany since the war is a remarkable sign of the times. That a French Professor at the University of Nancy should devote a whole book to a discussion of the rejuvenation of German education and its effects on international co-operation makes one take heart and feel that we are at last beginning to realize that at the basis of each national culture lies a civilization common to Europe. Professor Vulliod has written his book with sympathy and understanding, and it forms an excellent introduction to the educational situation in Germany to-day. It also discusses with fair-mindedness the chief problems that the new movement in Germany has to face. We can

recommend it heartily to students of education.

W. R.

The Task of Happiness. By C. A. Alington, D.D. (Student Christian Movement Press, London. 3s. 6d.)

This little book, attractive and pleasantly written, as one would expect from its author, is not unlike a string of connected sermons for home consumption. Their subject is the pursuit of happiness in the home, and Dr. Alington makes little apology, and that little is hardly needed, for believing that the directest route to happiness is goodness on Christian principles. After four preliminary chapters on the modern world and Christianity, come four more on the qualities needed for happy married life, and finally seven on the bringing up of children. These pages are written with a friendly and practical common sense that is easily appreciated and understood, and they are full of the wisdom of one who has much experience of what makes a happy family. Educational in a definite, let alone in a technical sense, they are not. Dr. Alington says he has 'a holy horror of those who speak and write of "Youth" or the "Adolescent"'. Clearly he prefers to be taken for an amateur and would dislike to be mistaken for an educationist. There is little risk as far as concerns this book, though he seems to have diminished somewhat his old ignorance of Montessori principles.

R. A. R.

Letters to School-Masters. By F. W. Felkin, M.A. (Sheldon Press, London. 4s. 6d.)

This is an extremely vigorous, readable, dogmatic book, well worth study, whether you agree with it or not—I often do not. There is much humour, some intentional, some unintentional. Among the latter is a rich instance of 'blind-spot psychology' where the author, himself cocksure on every point, tells those who disagree with him to 'think it possible that you may be mistaken'. At this I laughed long and loud. The main difference between Mr. Felkin and his kind, on the one hand, and myself and the 'N.E.F.' on the other, can best be illustrated by the following quotation:—'Far too much importance is paid now-a-days to individuality; boys come to school to acquire my individuality, which is not mine but the resultant of many centuries of educational experience'. If Mr. Felkin's mind were less enclosed in certain narrow dogmas he would realize how poor indeed is a human being who has merely 'acquired an individuality' by the side of one who has developed his own innate individuality. The battle-ground between the old education and the new stands precisely here. And the value of Mr. Felkin's own book lies plainly in the fact that he himself has an individuality that has its own life and power, and is *not* the mere 'resultant of many centuries of education.'

William Platt

The Creative Home. By Ivah Everett Deering.
(Richard R. Smith, Inc., New York City. \$1.50)

If I were a child I think I should like being a member of Mrs. Deering's household. She very evidently understands children—when to listen to them, when to leave them alone. Her own are undoubtedly real comrades and one feels that her home is a 'home' in the finest sense. *The Creative Home* tells parents how to foster the native powers of their children through creative play. The author gives suggestions for developing hobbies, for amateur dramatics, for making kitchen work really fun—in fact, she leaves no stone unturned to change all life into playtime. Unfortunately, we can't all live in pleasant bungalows in California, but all of us can learn from Mrs. Deering to help our children 'lead through life a pleasant way'. Best of all, a second book full of practical suggestions for parents who feel very vague as to how to bring out their children's talents, is to follow shortly. We can feel almost sentimental about this business of parenthood when its ideal is as fine as this author's.

Dorothy Walton Binder

The Ideal Management of Pregnancy. By C. V. Pink. With a Foreword by Lady Emily Lutyens.
(Cassell & Co., London, Toronto, Melbourne and Sydney. 5s.)

These 'talks' with expectant mothers are based on Dr. Pink's extensive experience in specialized obstetrics and infant welfare. All may not agree with his philosophy, but his commonsense, evident knowledge and understanding, and his simple and few rules for right living and right thinking during a time often and needlessly fraught with foreboding, are of the greatest value. Much necessary explanation and good advice founded on experience, a few physical exercises, a few recipes for the preparation of food, and designs and lists of suitable materials for layettes, make up the content of this encouraging book.

Richard the Lionheart. By Rhoda Power. (Putnam, London. 3s. 6d.)

This tale of Richard 'Yea and Nay' should delight the heart of all small boys and many little girls. It is simply told and the confusion of royal relations, dukedoms and battles, to say nothing of the vastly different geographical boundaries so difficult for children, are well ironed out with the help of maps. Miss Power has crammed a deal of history into a

short space and though style often suffers in dealing with quantities of facts, she has managed to make her tale extremely interesting. One feels that she knows her Palestine and has herself experienced the trials that the English king and his knights, accustomed to their damp and verdant isle, suffered at the mercy of scorching winds and lack of water. Little girls may wish, as I did, that there was more to tell of the beautiful young Berengaria who followed Richard to Sicily and married him on the island of Cyprus between two battles. What did she do while Richard was storming Jerusalem? Where was she when Richard was captured on the way home and languished in Austrian fortresses? Miss Power has given us a very human Richard—a brave and honourable man, if a cruel and ruthless one. Men loved and admired and feared him. Those who had to pay for his warring may even have hated him. But the author does not make an idol of him, and we can admire Saladin, whose extraordinary kindness to his enemies is far from what we are traditionally allowed to think of the Turks, quite as much as Richard. Children will find as much thrill in this true historical tale as in any 'made-up' adventure story.

D. W. B.

Stories from Everywhere. By Rhoda Power.
(Evans Bros., Ltd., London. 4s. 6d.)

From the far East and the far West and the In-between Miss Power has collected these fairy tales for little folks. Some are old folk tales retold. Some are Miss Power's own fabrication inspired by plots of ancient lore. They are all charming and delightfully told and will please the child who enjoys the fanciful.

D. W. B.

Careers and Vocational Training. *A Guide to the Professions and Occupations of Educated Women and Girls.* The Central Employment Bureau for Women and Students' Careers Association (Inc.). (Women's Employment Publishing Co. Ltd., London. 2s.)

This book deals with the professions open to women at the present day, with the training and qualifications admitting to them. Each article is written by someone directly connected with the career described, and gives the latest information on prospects and conditions. Well-established and recent professions are included. An article on vocational guidance stresses the dangers of taking up unsuitable work.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

THE democratic spirit of the age demands opportunities for individual self-expression. This is a marked phase in the present evolutionary period of human development, both in individuals and in nations. The post-war economic and social upheaval renders it no matter for surprise, therefore, that fundamental changes are taking place within the British Empire. The British Commonwealth Education Conference, organized by the New Education Fellowship, and under the Presidency of Professor Sir Percy Nunn, met in order to provide opportunities for the exchange of views on a 'Changing Education in a Changing Empire'.

The Dominions Each constituent part of the British Empire has become aware of its nationhood to the extent made possible by its own peculiar history. Speakers such as Dr. R. C. Wallace of Canada, Prof. T. A. Hunter of New Zealand, and Dr. G. G. Cillié of South Africa, stressed the fact that these Dominions are now of age, have developed a national life of their own, and are in the process of building up educational systems fitted to their needs. Citizens of the Dominions who have a blood tie with the people of Great Britain have naturally a stronger feeling of affection for the 'old country' than citizens who have no such kinship. Yet even where there is a blood tie there is a change in sentiment. Whereas, thirty years ago, a Canadian, Australian, or New Zealander might have felt himself to be a Colonial exiled from home, he now identifies himself with his own country, and is primarily a Canadian, an Australian, or a New Zealander.

India India, which was strongly represented at the Conference, is in a quite different

position. Not only is there no blood relationship, but there is an ancient civilization, highly cultured and philosophic. Many of the delegates expected to have to defend the Indian desire for a national system of education. They found, however, that they were among people who sympathized with their aspirations, and the harmonious atmosphere made possible remarkably frank discussion. They freely admitted the need for the development of the physical and material side of their education. Indians desire that Great Britain should not obstruct their efforts to build up a comprehensive national system suited to their own cultural requirements. It was valuable to have this point of view stressed at the Conference, since some two-thirds of the population of the British Commonwealth is in India. The West is realizing afresh the importance of the spiritual in life, and India has a valuable contribution to make in the realms of philosophy and spirit.

A New Attitude One of the most interesting and significant addresses of the Conference was that of Mr. Ormsby Gore. He demonstrated that though the African people are more retarded in evolution, judged by Western standards, and are still in need of guidance and protection, a new attitude is required on the part of Western educators. The Africans have their own social structures and these we must understand in order to help to build up an educational system suited to their present needs.

Bilingualism Time after time in lectures and discussions delegates insisted that during primary school education children should be taught in their mother tongue. Dr. E. G. Malherbe pointed out that until a nation has 'that free expression of personality through

a medium in which artistic creativeness is given every opportunity to develop', it is unable to co-operate with other nations on a basis of equality. All agreed, however, that English should be a second language, thus providing a common language for the British Commonwealth. At the 1932 World Conference at Nice, because of the great importance of bilingualism and of the promotion of racial understanding, there will be further discussion on the educational problems involved. The French, the Belgians and the Dutch are much interested in this subject also.

Common Problems It is evident that there are great differences between the constituent parts of the British Commonwealth, differences geographical, climatic and national, demanding individual approach to their individual needs and to this mechanical age. It is also evident that there are a number of common problems that should be discussed: the introduction of nursery schools into the school system; the differentiation in curriculum of secondary schools in view of the increasing number of children continuing their education after the primary school; the ensuring of a democratic spirit in secondary schools, which will give practical education to the practically minded without penalizing the academically gifted child; the problems of reform of examinations, rural education, vocational guidance, and the use of such mechanical aids to teaching as the cinema and broadcasting; the problems arising out of changing methods due to the recognition of individual needs.

In such problems we need to pool experience, for we have all much to learn from each other. Great Britain has much to give, with its older culture, its genius for individual adaptation, and its insistence on the power of the individual, which has provided opportunities for individual deviation in schools directed by men and women of marked personality. But Britain can learn a great deal from the Dominions. In most of them there is no social gulf between primary and secondary education. The schools are the schools of the people, and all classes send their children to the state primary school, which is free. This at once raises the standard of staff, buildings and equipment in these schools. And

in many of the Dominions there is free secondary and university education also.

While in some aspects of education Great Britain is advancing more rapidly than the Dominions, in each of these there are developments that are equal, if not superior, to similar developments in Great Britain. Such, for instance, are the Toronto and Pretoria mental hygiene schemes. There the university, nursery schools, selected primary and secondary schools, parental education, juvenile courts, industrial psychology and social services are all co-ordinated with the Child Guidance Clinic.

In curriculum reform, in methodology, and particularly in the introduction of the æsthetic side into schools, there has been more advance in Great Britain. There were delightful demonstrations at the Conference of dramatic work, of dancing and of choral and orchestral work.

A Commonwealth Educational Institute The importance of a Commonwealth Educational Institute cannot be over-estimated. It is projected in connection with the University of London, as described by Professor Sir Percy Nunn. Such a centre of research, which will disseminate the results of modern education, is long overdue. Sir Michael Sadler says in his paper, 'The Philosophy Underlying the System of Education in England' (Sixth Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, New York, 1929) that Oxford and Cambridge, having failed to keep abreast of the times in educational matters, are being superseded by the University of London. 'No young Colonial administrator on leave would be well advised to choose Oxford or Cambridge rather than Teachers College (Columbia University), or the London Day Training College, for an advanced study of the philosophy and current problems of education.' He discusses the reasons for this, and states that 'something happened to Oxford and Cambridge in the middle of the nineteenth century which deadened part of their brain to the significance of the English educational tradition'.

New Loyalties The new relationship between Great Britain and the other parts of the Commonwealth demands new loyalties. These loyalties are based on the well-

known psychological law that by giving freedom to youth, the parent obtains far greater love, loyalty and co-operation than he can by domination. The period of the intense individualism of adolescence requires on the parent's part courage to step aside, and patience to wait.

Mr. Channing Pearce, a former Indian civil servant, questioned whether, in the unfolding of this new outlook, the slowly changing tradition of the English Public School is helpful. Too intense a national spirit is not conducive to sympathetic understanding of the differences in outlook and ideals which will constitute a new type of loyalty. Many parts of the Empire no longer require the type of man that can govern, splendid as has been his work and influence, but rather the type that can co-operate while leading.

The rôle of the individual teacher is great, for if we can rear in our schools a new generation with wider vision and a new orientation, the cultural bonds of the Empire may be strengthened, not weakened as have been the political and economic.

The Rights of Children In this century the rights of children must be established. Our faith in the inherent possibilities for good of human nature leads us to believe that, through a fuller education and the right environment and guidance, freer and better-adjusted personalities can be developed. As Sir Michael Sadler has rightly said: 'Our modern

world cannot afford modern education and modern war.' There is no dearth of the basic necessities; we can ensure to every human being, child and adult, the essentials for growth and well-being.

We need good leaders; we need research and adventurous thinking. And we need to break down the barriers between race and race, between class and class, between one colour and another. It is impossible to break them down without running grave risks; yet unless we take the risks our civilization will end in chaos.

There are many and complicated problems; yet probably the worst have been caused by fear, narrowness of outlook, lack of understanding and intolerance. We must do away with these and bend our minds to discover how to organize a society in which the world will not belong to the privileged few, but to all prepared to accept personal responsibility in co-operation with others.

Unfortunately, owing to the great economic depression in Australia, that continent was not represented at the Conference, but all reports show that new education is making headway there, especially in the towns.

Much good educational work among families far away in the interior is also being done by means of correspondence schools. Lessons are sent out from central bodies in the towns; the work is intelligently completed and punctually returned, and in many cases the parents also avail themselves of this educational opportunity.

Education in a Changing Commonwealth

SIR MICHAEL SADLER, C.B., K.C.S.I.

Master of University College, Oxford

WE cannot wonder that multitudes of men and women of nearly all races are turning their eyes towards education as the hope of the future. Their instinct is right. Experience has proved that education can make men healthier and more co-operative. The demand for education has advanced with giant strides. But without the help of women teachers, the demand cannot be met. Wherever the services of women are not yet available for school teaching, there is arrested growth, especially in primary education.

The new education has already achieved much. Universities have been multiplied, and the number of highly trained recruits for the professions and scientific industry is beyond precedent. Primary schools in the villages are gradually expanding into centres of community welfare. Education is less bookish. Physical culture is asserting its claim to parity with culture of the mind. The gradual integration of the two into one culture will make it possible to bring a liberal education within the reach of everybody, without incurring the risk of producing an academic proletariat.

Schools have become much happier places than most of them used to be. We do not forget that in the past there were some first-rate schools, and that to-day there are very many which fall below the standard of our time. But education as a whole has been humanized. The discipline of fear has been replaced by the discipline of corporate responsibility and of self-respect. In the classroom there is less parrot-work, less routine. Hand and eye, ear and voice, are systematically trained. Cookery and gardening; the care of animals; skill with pencil and brush, with lathe and forge; surveying and practical geography; keeping exact records of weather and of the march of the seasons; modelling and basket work; school games and school journeys; physical training and medical care, play an increasing part in the early education of boys and girls. School life grows longer. The old walls of partition between elementary and

secondary education have been breached.

The United States led the way in popularizing high schools. The most infectious current philosophy of democratic education has its source in America. But since 1900 no country has made greater efforts than England, which, it is true, had grave arrears to overtake. The economic importance of the United States and that of the British Commonwealth have made the desire to learn English an almost world-wide factor in education. Great Britain, and especially England, has led the way in the education of adults. The United States were pioneers in equipping rural schools for active service to their community.

In most countries public opinion gives increasing support to expenditure on education. Independent schools are making vitally important contributions to the new education. Corporate and missionary enterprise are more vigorous than ever. In the mass, however, the schools are passing from the regime of unsubsidized private enterprise into financial dependence on the State. But only in Russia has educational liberty been exterminated.

Two flaws impair the value of what is being done for education:—the vulgarity of the cinema, and feebleness in educational research. For the first flaw, the Americans are chiefly to blame: for the second, the British.

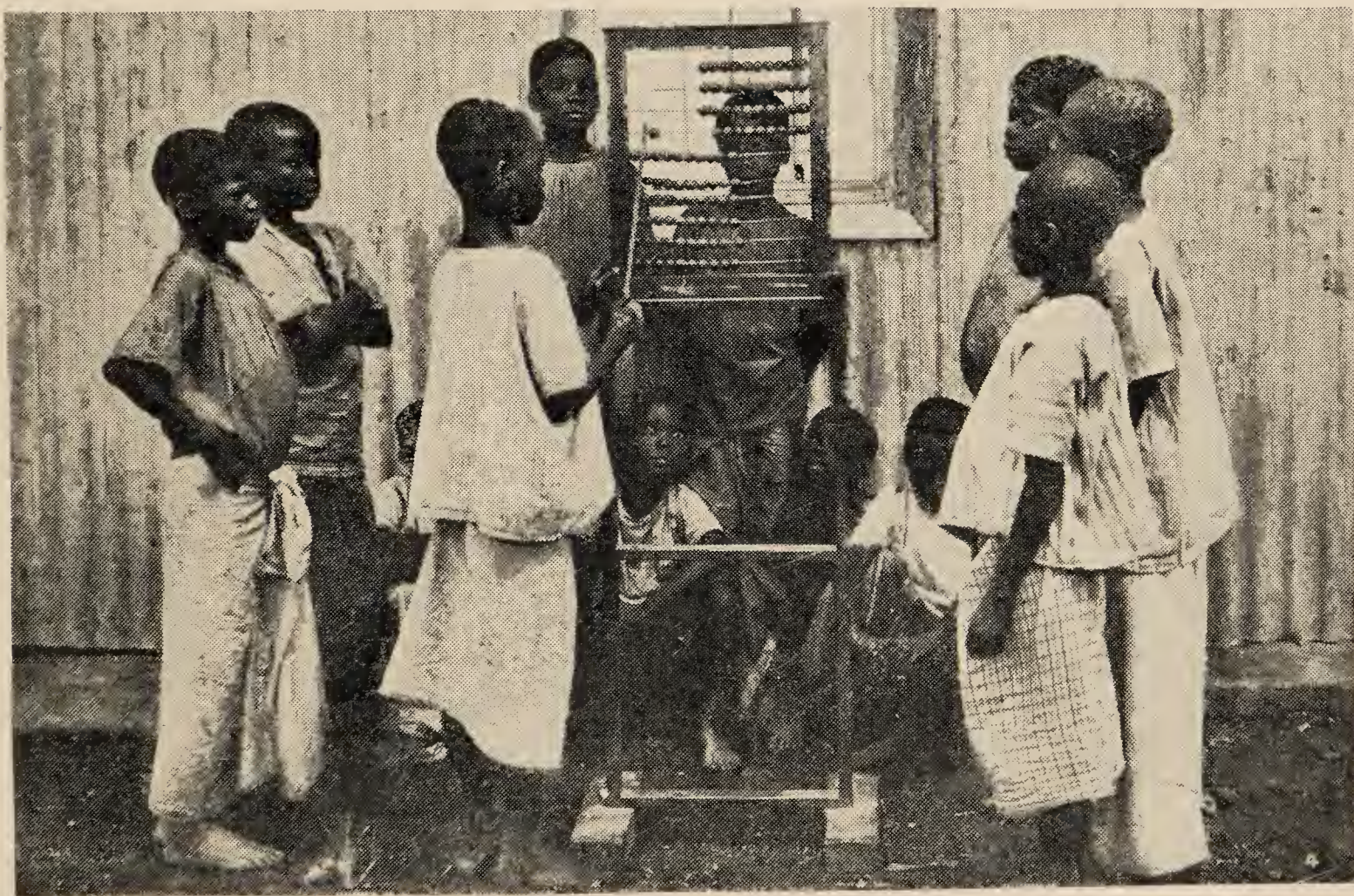
Three problems, each charged with dynamite, have become crucial! They are (1) the just division of the fruits of labour; (2) the terms on which nations and races can be at peace; (3) the contrivance of educational opportunity for every boy and girl, for every man and woman. These three problems are linked together. It is evident that the world cannot afford the cost both of modern education and of modern war. And the economic structure of society can only remain stable in so far as it is felt by the rising generation to be just, because education makes those who receive it increasingly sensitive to injustice.

For this reason there is a connection between

the spread of discontent and the spread of education. It is significant that the history of modern education synchronizes with the history of modern discontent. The true diagnosis seems to be that discontent and the desire for education spring from the same ferment in the minds of men. This ferment has been active for about five hundred years. The Renaissance saw its first fruits. The revolutions of the last century and a half have diffused its influence. To-day there is world-wide inflammation. We can only say that the fever of unrest may be allayed by a generous encouragement of many-sided education—an education allied with science,

courage and compassion and imbued with a sense of the mystery of life. But the whole world is being moved by vast forces, liberated by mechanical invention, by philanthropy and commercial enterprise, by the swift passage of news, by the modernizing of the East, by the illumination of Africa, by the enfeeblement of ancient custom, by inquiry into the origins of religious belief, by the complex influence to which we give the broad name of education, and by human yearning for freedom and a fuller life. What will be the parti-coloured issue of this stupendous travail, no one can divine.

[Address read]



An Arithmetic Lesson

[Gabon, French Equatorial Africa]

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A Commonwealth Institute

SIR PERCY NUNN, M.A., LL.D., D.Sc., Litt.D.

Professor of Education at the University of London, and President of the Conference

THERE is need to create in London a permanent and well-organized centre of educational discussion and inquiry for the British Commonwealth. By the proposed Statute of Westminster the political subordination of the nations of the Commonwealth to the Mother Country, which has already ceased in fact, will be formally ended. The statute is a symbol, signifying not the severance of relations which could continue to be cherished, but the entry of the constituent peoples of the Commonwealth into a new phase of co-operation. Nevertheless, time will inevitably bring about a dissolution of their fellowship unless steps are taken to preserve it. A chief means of guaranteeing its permanence is to hold fast to the common heritage of fundamental ideas and ideals which are expressed in our educational institutions and traditions and, through them, exercise an unconscious but decisive influence upon the young citizens of the Commonwealth.

This indicates succinctly the main purpose of the proposed Institute of Education. There is no desire to mould the educational systems of the Dominions and India to a uniform pattern; that would be wholly deplorable. Our purpose ought rather to be to foster the individual development of the constituents of the Commonwealth, and the Institute would fail of its purpose if it did not make an important contribution to that aim. Such an institution would be of equal service to all those sharing in it. It would be of great service to the Dominions and to India, for on the one hand there are among them young communities faced with educational problems whose wise solution is of critical importance to their development; and on the other hand there are, as in India, problems of equally critical importance arising out of the rapid changes going on in the spirit of the community. The Mother Country stands equally to profit, for her ancient tradition would constantly be refreshed by new and vigorous ideas.

No one who knows the facts can fail to be impressed by the extent to which the educa-

tional movement in the great Dominions is assuming an American orientation. This is still more striking in foreign lands in which Great Britain has much at stake: for instance, in Turkey, and above all, in China, where the Economic Commission recently sent out by the Department of Overseas Trade has found that the exploitation of a great educational opportunity by the United States and its neglect by Great Britain has created a situation seriously unfavourable to our trading interests. It would be absurd and unjust to complain because the American people are reaping rewards which they most richly deserve on account of their zeal for education, which greatly outruns our own, and their most noble generosity in furthering educational causes in all lands. We must admit that they have reaped what they have sown, and it is a fine harvest because the sowing was fine.

Moreover, we must recognize that the educational situation in the Dominions has something akin to the educational situation in the United States. A young people must often have a good deal to learn from another people only a little less young; and so it is quite natural that the Dominions should turn to the United States for much educational inspiration and should profit greatly by what they learn there. There is no question that American influence in education is not only necessary, but also of a most valuable nature. But all the same it is not satisfactory that Britain should not play her due part in shaping the educational traditions of the Commonwealth. It is not satisfactory that the educational thinking needed for the Dominions and the Colonies should be centred so largely in Columbia University, at Harvard and at Chicago; that New York, for instance, and not London should have trained for their work the men who hold all the key positions in the educational system of one of the most interesting of Britain's mandated territories.

These things do not happen because we have nothing to give in the educational field. England, after all, is one of the great culture

countries, with ancient educational traditions, and immensely varied experience in trying to educate all sorts of people in all corners of the earth. We have a great amount to give. We do not give it, our influence is largely wasted, simply because there is no organ through which it can be exercised.

The University of London recognizes the importance of taking these problems in hand, and we hope that the practical steps which they will adopt to create an organ through which the English philosophy of education shall be expressed, will take the form of an Institute of Education based upon certain institutions which already exist and have been at work for many years in the University: the London Day Training College, and the Education Department in King's College, London. When they began their work the vision of their usefulness was limited by the requirements of the English educational field. But little by little their activities have assumed an Imperial scope and direction. They receive from time to time young men and women of some maturity, who have already proved their worth in the Dominions. Among these are New Zealanders, South Africans, including two or three able Afrikans-speaking men, and students from India, and also from Ceylon; some of them men of unmistakable distinction.

The London Day Training College was founded by the London County Council, and has been very generously staffed, maintained and encouraged by the London County Council. But plainly work of this kind lies quite outside the proper scope of a local education authority, however vast. And they have therefore decided to pass over their College to the control of the Senate of the University of London, and intend most generously to provide for the College after its transference. The Thomas Wall Trust has enabled the University to set up in King's College a Readership in Comparative Education which would be an important contribution to the plan.

The problems that will face the Institute run out into neighbouring territories. There are obviously, for example, psychological problems which have strong educational bearing. The Institute must work in harmony with the psychological departments of the University.

The problems of educating the native peoples of tropical Africa, at once make co-operation with the Department of Anthropology visibly a necessity. There are the Schools of Tropical Hygiene and of Oriental Studies, whose co-operation again will often be necessary. And, lastly, it is to be hoped that the Institute will have behind it the vast experience and the great resources of the Government Departments which touch upon education, not merely the Board of Education itself, but the India, the Colonial, and the Dominions Offices.

The very essence of the Institute is that it is to be a place for discussion and for inquiry, and that means a place where the personnel has a fluidity which will ensure a perpetual looking at the same sort of questions from new points of view. It should be rather on the model of the 'staff college', the essence of which is that there is a small permanent nucleus of people, as good as can be got, and then a floating staff of distinguished persons who come in with their message, give their message, and, after a time, go away and give place to others.

Thus it is to be hoped that the Institute will be a focus, whence there will converge from time to time the best experience and the wisest thought in the educational systems of the different Dominions. Those who bring them would be the picked people, the people who really matter, the people who have gone through their own universities, have had some experience in teaching, in university work, in administration, and who have come to London to get partly what the Institute will have to give, and above all to meet with other persons of their own standing. Those who come from India, from the Colonies, from other British Universities as well as from the Dominions, would not only bring their own important contributions, but would also carry something of value home: while out of their intercourse in the Institute with teachers and students from all parts of the Commonwealth, there would be built up a common educational consciousness and something of a common educational doctrine, which would not limit the individual development of our great Commonwealth systems of education, but could not fail to subserve the cultural unity and fraternal understanding of the free nations of the Commonwealth.



The University of Capetown
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Universities and University Problems South of the Zambesi

SIR CARRUTHERS BEATTIE, LL.D., D.Sc.

Vice-Chancellor of the University of Capetown

I DO not feel that I need offer any excuse for speaking on University problems, because I am one of those who think that the whole of education from the kindergarten to the university is a unity.

We are a white population of, at most, two millions. This white population has already four self-administered universities of the type of your city universities, and has a Federal University embracing five University Colleges. If you in Great Britain were supplied with universities to the same extent, you would have forty or fifty of them, and numberless university colleges. It is particularly interesting that South Africa has come to this position, because we began our development very late. The Cape was first annexed to England in 1620. This was repudiated in London, and the final annexation was not by the English but by the Dutch.

As far as higher education was concerned, you can skip the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; it was only in the nineteenth century that development began to take place. Till about the seventies there were only one or two institutions, which to-day would be called high schools, distributed over an area of perhaps two or three hundred thousand square miles, and called 'colleges'.

Then the first step was made towards a university, and the example followed was that of London, with the external student. It is interesting to make a comparison as to what was done in South Africa, in Australia and in Canada, because to a certain extent they have the same troubles. Australia took the town university and set its face against the university which throws the whole of university education on to the examination. Canada started with a great number of universities; for a time had also the student who depended upon the examination, the external student; and then did as Australia. South Africa, which in many ways is perhaps more English than the English, despite the fact that more than half of us are not of English ex-

traction, adopted the purely examining university, which was with us as the University of the Cape of Good Hope for about fifty years.

It was not until the seventies that the strong cultural differences began to show themselves as they are to-day. This was chiefly due to the growth of nationalism in Europe. The non-English speaking people felt they were having a culture thrust upon them, but felt most of all that their mother tongue was being submerged.

Then there comes into the picture that great man Cecil Rhodes, certainly the biggest man that South Africa has ever had to do with. Cecil Rhodes had great ideals. He thought that from the South the white race should begin with its civilization, and civilize Africa right up to the Equator; a great scheme, and much bigger forty years ago than it looks to-day. 'But', Rhodes said, 'it is impossible to do this with the white people divided as they are divided.'

He knew in Bloemfontein an institution called the Grey College, where students, Dutch and English, met and studied together. He came to the conclusion that there was one way to unite politically all South Africa, namely, to bring the youth together. Remember, in his time we had four practically independent colonies. He said: 'The way to bring them together is to create a big university and bring them there from every part of South Africa.' 'They will live together,' he said, 'play together, get to know each other, spread out over Africa, and make it a united country.' He made that speech in 1891 at Kimberley.

Then came, what always has so far come in South Africa—the higher politics. Was Rhodesia to be English or German? He had to give way on the question of a university in order to make certain that Rhodesia was annexed.

But just at the time that Rhodes started with this idea, another ideal was started in the north, in the Transvaal. There a definite beginning was made with a State University, whereas Rhodes'

University was to have been on the English lines, state-aided, if you like, but an independent university. Then came the second Boer War. After the Peace of Vereeniging everything educational went into the melting-pot; for years—even after political union was attained in 1910—Royal Commissions, parliamentary committees, deliberated on the university question, and another attempt was made to establish a single university for the whole country.

The solution came in 1916, when three universities, the University of Capetown, the University of Stellenbosch (independent Universities) and the University of South Africa, with six or eight constituent University Colleges, were established. But this made little or no difference to the struggle between the two languages, and more and more the universities took on a definite cultural tinge. Stellenbosch to-day is predominantly Afrikaans-speaking, Capetown is predominantly English-speaking. One of the troubles we have is this; in South Africa we think, many of us—all of us, I believe, English-speaking or Afrikaans-speaking—that South Africa never can be what it ought to be unless these people are united. The division into universities, with English-speaking people on one side, Afrikaans-speaking people on the other side, is not helping, we are afraid, that ideal. At the latest university that has been founded in South Africa, the University of Pretoria in Pretoria, they have definitely made the attempt to work a bilingual university.

Now, is it a possible thing to run a bilingual university, or must we do as they have done in Quebec, where they have two universities in Montreal, definitely separated? Can we have an efficient university and compel all our teachers to lecture either in one language or in the other?

So far I have spoken simply of whites. But there are five or six million non-whites in South Africa. We have a certain number of non-whites, of whom it is no use white people saying they are intellectually on a lower level. They are not. You cannot say of the Indian in South Africa that he has a civilization newer than ours. Then there are over half a million of mixed race—European with Bantu—the 'coloured' people. Finally, you have five or six million people of

pure negro descent, the Bantu, who are to-day Europeanizing themselves as rapidly as they can. What are we to do with these people? What is the trouble that I have, for example?

We have to start off with this bed-rock fact, that in the universities to-day in South Africa there is a definite colour prejudice. I am not free from it, I who have had the whole of my education in Europe, who did not go to South Africa till I was thirty years of age. It is not fair to say that this colour prejudice is purely a Dutch thing. It is as much English as Dutch.

Let me take the problem that we have in Capetown alone. Capetown has a population of about 300,000—150,000 white, 150,000 non-white. There are about 25,000 white children attending school, of whom two or three hundred each year are sent to the university. There are 25,000 other children, Indian and coloured (very few Bantu), who are also at school, and they are getting schools to prepare them for the university. They should within the next twenty years also send to the university two or three hundred students yearly.

What is the solution for that? Are we to start off in South Africa now another series of universities? And when you have settled that question, you cannot set aside the fact that you already have the Bantu, who are able to pass any test you care to set for entrance to a university. They pay taxes. They are good citizens. You must give to them university education. That is where we are to-day.

The great number of universities in South Africa is due to the fact that you have each race, two white races to begin with, demanding a university for each culture. Had it been a homogeneous white people, you would have had probably half the number of universities. Then you have coming on behind, the subject races, and it is going to be a matter of the greatest difficulty in the next generation to see how these problems are to be solved.

As whites, you have always to keep in mind we are a minority, we are living in fear of submersion. What we want to do is to remove the fear, if we can, from the whites there, and give a fair solution to everyone.

[*Report of address*]

The New Education in a Changing Empire

E. G. MALHERBE, M.A., Ph.D.

Director of the National Bureau of Education for South Africa, Pretoria

I WISH to discuss two fundamental principles for which the New Education stands: the principle of Individuality and that of Co-operation. These two principles are correlative and complementary. As a Dutch-speaking South African I may view things from a slightly different angle from my English-speaking compatriots. However, they are also represented here, and the audience will have the benefit of the different points of view and so get nearer to the underlying bond of truth between us.

As a result of the Imperial Conference of 1926 an entirely new formulation was given to the status of the Dominions. The British Empire was there defined as 'a free association as between willing partners'. This definition has an important bearing on the general thesis which I want to develop in this paper, viz. that if we take the two forms of human controls, (a) Government, and (b) Education, the former will be successful in proportion as it partakes of the nature of the latter. In other words, the ideal political relationship in society should be less that of 'government' to citizen, and more that of teacher to pupil.

The Empire is changing so rapidly that our terminology has become obsolete, much to the discomfort of politicians. Luckily, however, the political genius of the English people made them see in time that it was folly to try out any cast-iron stunts on so rapidly growing an organism. It is noteworthy that the direction of the change in the political relationship of Great Britain and the Dominions is exactly towards the realization of the two principles enunciated above, those of individuality and co-operation. Each Dominion is left free to work out its own destiny and to realize and develop to the fullest extent its own distinctive national (cultural) individuality.

Perhaps more than any other phase of national life the educational system of a country expresses the innermost beliefs, ideals and aspirations of its people. 'A nation's school

system is but the reflex of her history, her social forces, and of the political and economic situations that make up her existence.' Transplanting education from one country to another is therefore at best a risky business. And yet it may be said of South Africa that at no period in its history, except perhaps during the last few decades, was education to any extent the spontaneous expression of the ethos, or genius, of the South African people. There are perhaps few countries in the world where the educational system has had so many tamperings from without as South Africa.

First, she had a spell of seventeenth century Dutch-religious education transplanted from the Netherlands. Then, as a result of a hundred and fifty years of independent adaptation and under the guidance of that wise educator-administrator, De Mist, who crystallized it into the Education Ordinance, an English system was introduced. The avowed policy of this new system as enforced by Lord Charles Somerset in 1882, was to anglicize the inhabitants of the country by means of the schools. The language of the people, Dutch, was disregarded and the little Dutch children had to learn all their facts concerning arithmetic, geography, history, and so on, through the medium of English, which they did not understand. Most of them never heard English except in the schoolroom. To most of them 'education' meant learning English. An inspector of schools told me an experience which illustrates this. He gave a class of native children, who all understood English, the following problem: 'I give you 5 oxen, 3 cows and 2 horses. How many head of cattle did I give you?' No reply. He repeated the question, yet no correct response. Then he switched over to their native tongue and stated the problem in that language. Immediately they all gave the answer correctly. Much puzzled, he asked them why they could do it now and not before. 'Ah, yes', they answered; 'you see, Sir, now it's counting cattle, but before it was a case of doing *arithmetic!*'

Another historical point may be mentioned: the fact that English was the language of the Government—something run by people who called England their 'home'—made the rural inhabitants in particular look upon schooling as something imposed upon them from without, and it unconsciously set going in their minds defence mechanisms against education and created an attitude which many mistook for intellectual heaviness. Continue this sort of thing for about a century with a people who have a natural capacity for strong national feeling and one finds that it plays curious tricks with *individuality*.

Take the Afrikaans-speaking section, which constitutes more than half of the South African people. There was with them the fear that they, a small people, would be swamped culturally by the mighty power of Britain with its world-wide culture backed by centuries of tradition. It was only natural that they would fight for their cultural distinctiveness. Let me point out that the Afrikaans-speaking South African has never been averse to learning English. When, however, English dominance meant the exclusion of his own language and culture as a form of learning and self-expression, then it was that he put himself out to protect his distinctive culture and tradition. It is as well that he did, because stronger spirits, rising up during the last half century, and surmounting every obstacle, have produced literature in Afrikaans which as poetry stands higher than anything that English or Dutch South Africans have produced in English.

Why is it, I have often heard it asked, that it is so difficult to get South Africans to co-operate? My answer is: we have failed on the second principle, *co-operation*, because of the initial violation of the first principle, *individuality*. The reason is psychological. We never could co-operate internally or externally *because we were never sure of ourselves*. We were continually surrounded by fear and suspicion. As a people we never had that free expression of personality through a medium in which artistic creativeness was given every opportunity to develop. We did

not 'get things off our chest', as it were, and as a result developed complexes which destroyed our natural poise.

We are at heart an artistic people, but we have suffered a great deal from unrealized emotional expression. Our education and our religion were against it. Hence certain maladjustments in our inner and social selves. Luckily to-day South Africa is becoming surer of herself internally, and as a consequence she is slowly building up an educational system which is gradually being adapted to her needs and which we hope will in course of time adequately express and re-create her innermost spiritual forces.

There is one important point in connection with our national life on which I must in conclusion very briefly touch. That is the *native question*. Here we are in the southernmost tip of the vast continent of Africa, a bare two million white people carrying the torch of the culture of European civilization amidst an overwhelming majority of primitive people. Though the question has its political and its economic aspects, it is primarily an educational one. Here we have two cultures, a primitive one and an advanced one, in intimate contact. The native, particularly in South Africa, is rapidly assimilating European culture. The trouble, however, lies in the transition stage, in the period when the sanctions of his primitive traditions and customs, which are excellent in many ways, are weakened (in the case of the detribalized native in the cities they are entirely lost) without the European sanctions being firmly established. This period of ethnic adolescence is one of *Sturm und Drang*. It is here too that I wish to apply the thesis enunciated above, namely, *that the art of governing these primitive races must be of the nature of the art of education*.

We need your sympathy and your help in every way. Let us hope that the study of education in the sense of *human guardianship* will come to its rightful heritage and that leaders will be able to realize in actual practice the principles of individuality and of co-operation for which the new education stands.

[Report of address read]

Dominion Ideals in Education : Canada

R. C. WALLACE, M.A., Ph.D., D.Sc., LL.D.

Principal of the University of Alberta

IN Canada, the desire for education is widespread and intense. The various peoples, including American settlers, who have made their home in Canada, vie with each other in their desire that their children obtain an education to the close of high school stage if possible, and to high school entrance at least. In a country with sparsely settled communities and with new pioneer areas for each generation, this desire for education could find fulfilment only at great sacrifice, and by careful planning on the part of the educational authorities.

In order to make possible a better quality of education than the one-roomed rural school can provide, the consolidated school has been established in some of the provinces, drawing students from distances up to ten or twelve miles by means of vans, and attracting a superior type of teacher to the five- or more-roomed school established under such conditions. Correspondence work may be established where the settlement is small. A travelling railway car or a travelling van may be found to be the most satisfactory school for a perambulating teacher, and the service of the radio will soon be called into requisition. In such expedients the more settled communities are supporting the pioneer areas in order that the pathfinder may not be called on to make the sacrifice which should not be called for—that of depriving his children of an education.

It would be surprising if in a country where adaptability and the ready co-ordination of head and hand are necessary to material success, a practical-mindedness should not develop among old and young alike. Young people can do things, can undertake responsibilities, can handle others. Students in universities work their way through their course by a marvellous variety of occupations. They have a maturity and a poise which is in part an inheritance from a pioneer stock, and in part the result of their own life experiences. It is not surprising, therefore, that the applied sciences in the fields of engineering and agriculture should be culti-

vated by many of the best minds, that economics and sociology should have special attention, and that the practical sense should be fostered by summer vacation work in which the university studies are applied to the problems of the country.

It is not forgotten that the preparing of the way by adding wealth and leisure through scientific and technical endeavour is not enough, yet in the study of language there is limited equipment, whether in environment or in interest. Canada is, however, in the fortunate position of being bilingual: and the contribution which the French-Canadians make is greater than merely the gift of a language. Through their classical schools they produce men trained in the full appreciation of language who maintain the elegance of the French tongue, and of whom the more cultured present their thoughts in public life in models of English diction. It cannot be seriously maintained that philosophic thought flourishes, though men of world reputation have thought and worked in Canada. On the other hand, the application of psychology to problems of mental retardation and mental maladjustment finds a ready interest and a trained corps of investigators. The applications to methods in teaching and to environmental conditions in the home are already being made. The omens are not unfavourable in the fields of art, music and the drama. The Canadian school of art has added a distinctive natural note to the thinking of the people.

The reflective mind, and the mind attuned to beauty in language or in art may not yet find conditions so favourable as in countries of older civilization, but there is a striving towards that ideal. The people ask for something more satisfying than the material, and ask for it most articulately when times of depression hang heavily over the land.

There is an underlying apprehension of the dangers which are inherent in the democratic viewpoint in education, such as finds expression most naturally in a new country. Education-

alists in the United States would freely admit that, in raising the average standard of educational attainment, the more gifted have been penalized. Canada has been similarly affected; and it is necessary, from time to time, to give clear and courageous expression to the fact that people are not equally gifted mentally, and that it is worth while spending much more time and pains on the most gifted minds during their period of formal education, for the sake of future leadership. In the universities, the honours courses are specialized and much more elastic in type than the pass courses, and all very able students are encouraged to take them. An aristocracy of brains co-existent with a democracy of educational endeavour is by no means an easy form of government; but it is sound for the newer countries, and is not impossible of achievement.

In agricultural instruction, the most satisfactory conditions have been attained where schools are distributed throughout the farming communities, and give a training to boys and girls of approximately high school grade who intend to spend their lives on the farm. Technical training for the industries has found greater scope in the industrial centres of Ontario, and will be greatly stimulated by the new regulations in that province which require of all students school attendance until sixteen years of age if university matriculation has not already been attained; or alternatively, partial attendance until eighteen years.

One of the most striking features in the farmers' co-operative movement has been the educational activity which has focussed in it, and that in subjects not necessarily connected with the economic considerations which gave rise to the movement. In Western Canada the educational impulse has been very significant; and many men and women of unusual ability have come into public life stimulated by the intellectual ferment within the farmer movements. State universities have embraced the opportunity to give service to the constituency which supports them by a widespread system of extension service which demands no standards, grants no diplomas, and endeavours only to stimulate intellectual curiosity and encourage systematic study. In this work the radio is a new and a very powerful agency. Rightly used,

it may yet get us back to habits of careful thought and study from which the present mode of purveying education to the eye and the ear in an effortless way has tempted us all to stray. The task in adult education is challenging.

The daughters—the dominions across the seas—have grown up. They have now their own homes, their own cares, their own circles of friends. One of them—Canada—occupies half of a double house, separated by the thinnest of partitions from a cousin who has no ties but that of sentiment with the old home. How are the bonds between mother and daughters to be held most securely, when each is mistress in her own house? By holding together against the common danger; by exchanging goods in the market place; but most of all by hearts that think alike in the things that are dearest in life. [*Report of address*]

Dr. Wallace spoke at the final session of the Conference, giving his impression of the Conference as a whole. In part, he said:

The real problems in this Conference have been those of races that have to be considered in education to-day. We have been thinking about India and its growing educational problems, its growing sense of nationality and nationhood, the greater and greater responsibility that rests upon educated Indian men and women themselves to solve these their own problems. We have been thinking about Central and Southern Africa, both again facing the dominant problem of race. If we are to proceed safely with a system of education as far as these races are concerned, it cannot be imposed from without. It has to be an education which comes relatively easily from their own backgrounds and philosophy and point of view.

There are some common points, of which one has appeared at this Conference again and again. It is a world question which I do not think England or the other parts of the Commonwealth have yet solved. That is, the content of the education of the boy or girl beyond the primary stage, how far the university should, as we say, dominate high school education. Is it possible to develop an education which is a sound education for life, and yet leave the way open for the bright boy or girl to go through to

the higher avenues of professional mental training?

That is the big problem, and we are attempting to solve it in different ways, but we are not going to solve it until the university joins hands with the teachers.

There are coming into education things which are new, which mean a great deal to boys and girls, more than we as teachers are apt to admit—radio, drama and films. We have had extraordinarily interesting discussions and expositions of these new fields in which English educationists are doing work so remarkable. We have to bestir ourselves and see that these new media will work themselves into a scheme of education in a way which will add immensely to the richness and the culture of the race which is to come.

Behind all has been this common note—the note on which the Fellowship, I think, was founded—how far is education right which follows naturally the inclinations, the background, and the abilities of the individual boy and the individual girl? How far is the utilitarian education, education for living, the better way of culture? How far has it to be blended with those fields of culture which from time immemorial have formed part of our curriculum? Are we becoming utilitarian in our views of life, and, if we are, are we losing or not in educational value? Are we going to try to find out if this is not the newer culture of our new world, and what should be added to it to make it complete?

It is the men and women of affairs, after all, who are carrying the world, and their culture, their education and profession is something that is profoundly significant for us.

I like to think of education as tripartite. First, education for living, which is the thing I have been discussing just now. If a man does not do reasonably well and efficiently in living and the thing he has to do to make his daily bread, he is not going to impress the world very much in any other field. Education for living comes first.

Second, we have our duty as social beings: we have to live with and meet the people of the world, and our education as members of the human race becomes consequently profoundly significant.

Third, after we have done our day's work, there surely comes an hour or two when, if we are educated at all, we want to retire into the well-furnished chamber of our own mind, to commune with the thought of all ages and of all time. If we cannot do that, we have failed in education.

To me these are the three things, and will always remain the three things, in education, no matter what phraseology we use. If we fail in any one of them, we fail in all. We have to safeguard that hour or two which is the richest of our whole day. It cannot be done unless we furnish our mind with things that are not of to-day, and not of London or Canada or New Zealand, but of all time and of all place.

The October Issue

Lt.-Gen. the Rt. Hon. J. C. SMUTS on
A SOCIETY OF NATIONS

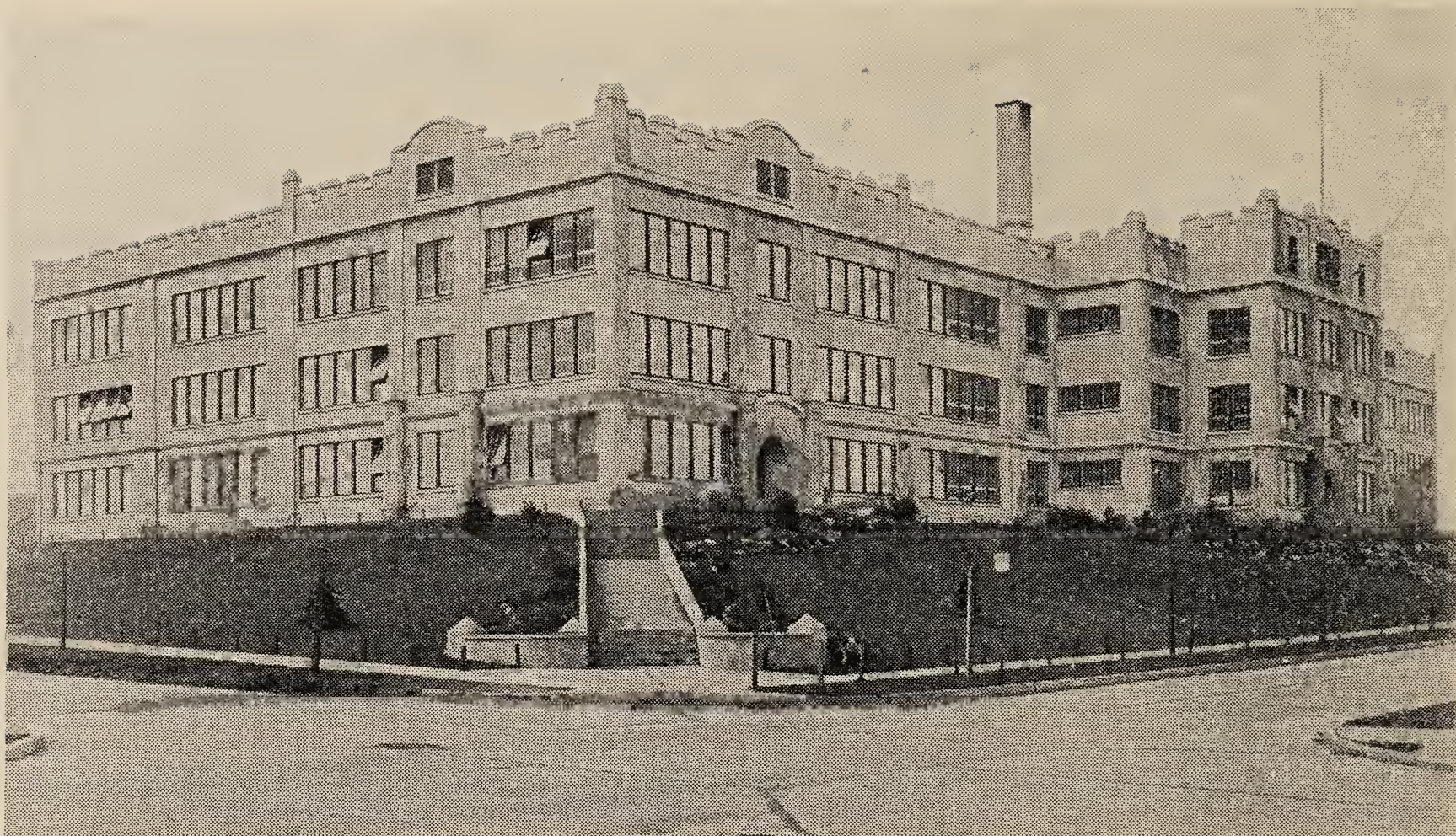
WHITHER EDUCATION?

UNDERSTANDING THE CHILD

SCIENTIFIC STUDIES IN PHYSICAL GROWTH

CHILDHOOD MEMORIES IN THE SHAPING OF LIFE

A BOYS' BOARDING SCHOOL IN FRANCE



Kitsilano Junior High School, Vancouver, B.C.



A Self-education Period

*[Regal Road School,
Toronto*

Education in India

DR. R. P. PARANJPYE

of the India Office, London

AS the general theme of this Conference is Education in a Changing Empire, I propose to refer to some general topics, and to place before you the thoughts and ideas of large sections of Indian opinion on this question of vital importance to the progress of India.

The first problem to be considered is quantitative. Repeated attempts have been made to extend primary education on a compulsory basis all over India, and most provinces have now passed the necessary legislation. The greatest progress has so far been made in the Punjab, but even there the extent of the area of compulsion is almost infinitesimal. In the whole of British India about forty-five per cent of boys of school-going age (which in India means below eleven years) and ten per cent of girls, and actually at school. Even this percentage is largely ineffective in producing actual literacy, as a large proportion of these children remain in school for less than four years and tend to forget what they learn.

The Legislative Councils are most eager to do everything to advance education, but circumstances have been too strong for them. The introduction of the Montague-Chelmsford reforms was almost immediately succeeded by a period of financial stringency which at the present moment is more severe than ever, and all schemes of educational advance have had to be laid aside. Thus, at any rate in the case of boys, the problem of elementary education is essentially one of finance. In the case of girls there are several other difficulties, especially of a social nature. People have not yet come to consider education to be as necessary for girls as for boys and are therefore less ready to make sacrifices for it, and social customs like *purdah* make rapid progress difficult. Still, difficulties are gradually disappearing and if the necessary funds are available it will be comparatively easy to raise the percentage of girls at school from the present ten to at least twenty-five within the course of five years.

There are several other important problems

in connection with secondary and higher education. The numbers of students in these grades bear a reasonable proportion to those in the elementary grade, though all classes of the population do not show the same balance. Even among the Hindus the various classes or castes show very different proportions. Thus the depressed classes are very far behind and the so-called intermediate classes are not very much better. If India is to possess a population educated in a homogeneous manner, much more attention has to be given to the education of these classes. It is only then that communal rivalries which, though taking various forms, ultimately arise from an unequal division of opportunities for advancement, especially as regards posts in Government Service and the professions, will disappear. People who are no friends to the advance of Indian nationhood are fond of pointing to the exaggerated weight of the Brahmins and other advanced classes in the country, often forgetting that Government has not always done its full duty in the matter. In recent years the legislators and their ministers have tried to make up for the omissions of the past, but financial stringency and the immense amount of work to be done are serious obstacles. It is satisfactory to find that the few leaders of the backward classes have come to realize the need of an increase of secondary and higher education among them. To any one conversant with education in India the sacrifices that even the poorest of parents offer to make to give their children education are marvellous.

The main trouble with education higher than the elementary is that it is too one-sided and is almost always merely of an academic character. From the national point of view a proper balance has to be preserved between purely academic education and technical and vocational education. The number of institutions of the latter character are very few, and what there are are not of very great efficiency, except in rare cases. The result is that there is too great a pressure on the few openings which are

similar to the 'black-coated' professions. The prevailing tendency is for everyone to go in for the academic courses, and it is often only the second-rate boys that join a technical or vocational school, on account of the greater prestige given by an academic education.

The most important purely educational problem in connection specially with secondary education is that of the medium of instruction. In recent days, even in circles not politically extreme, there has been a consensus of opinion that the vernaculars should be used almost exclusively as the medium, while English should be thoroughly taught as a compulsory second language. Some steps have been already taken and several private institutions in British India have begun to use them both for secondary and higher education, while the Osmania University is a similar experiment in the biggest Indian state. The one precaution that has to be taken in connection with this necessary educational reform is that the students' mastery over English does not diminish, but, if possible, increases. For it is the English language, English literature, history and science, that have given birth to a national feeling in India, and it is also the English language that will most easily keep us in touch with the world at large. New intellectual, political and industrial developments require constant touch with the language, and the increasing part taken by India in international movements can be properly sustained only by its means.

There is a growing feeling in Indian nationalist circles for the increasing use of a common Indian language, the Hindi, in India. But to my mind, if children are to learn a second language at all in addition to their mother tongue, the claims of English are far superior. Indian nationalist educational opinion appears to me to make too great a demand upon the pupil in the matter of languages. Thus in the case of a Marathi-speaking Hindu child Marathi is said to be necessary as being the mother tongue; Sanskrit, as it is the language of its religion; Hindi, as it expresses Pan-Indian nationalist sentiments; and English, as the language of the Government. Such linguistic attainments may be possible to the exceptionally brilliant pupil, but to attempt them in the case of all is to court failure and cause permanent harm to growing faculties.

Perhaps a solution can be obtained by making the vernacular and English compulsory, and requiring one other language which should be commenced at a fairly late stage in the secondary course.

Higher education in India is still mainly under the influence of universities founded on the pattern of the old London University, though some developments on modern lines have been made. The older universities lay down courses, conduct examinations and occasionally inspect the affiliated colleges which some of the younger universities are taking on the lines of the provincial universities in England. Broadly speaking, research has not been yet undertaken on a large scale in India. The reason for this is to be seen in the history of the progress of higher education. But there are now encouraging signs that Indian professors will soon take their proper place in the advancement of knowledge. In several branches India offers peculiar facilities for research, and it is hoped that with wider employment of talented Indians in the highest educational places it will proceed with increased vigour.

One of the greatest needs of the Indian educational system is the foundation of advanced institutions where Indian students can study under the most distinguished teachers to the furthest limits in any subject and thus be saved the trouble and expense of going abroad for the purpose. I have been personally coming to the conclusion that it should not be at all necessary for the average Indian student to come to Europe, and in particular to England, for an education of school or undergraduate grade. In the first place, the expense involved is too great; second, the surroundings into which a young person is thrown in the most impressionable years of his life are too different from his own to be always desirable. In many cases the result is unfortunate. In all cases habits of expensive living are formed which are unsuitable to India. The students do not see the best of English family life, and often go away with wrong ideas about England. Sometimes they come into contact with undesirable elements, and are led to think that small minorities with which they have become familiar represent the main currents of English thought. Thus they lose their sense of proportion. The vast influx of Indian

students into England is mainly due to the exaggerated prestige attached to a foreign degree, and Indian government should so direct its policy that a good Indian degree will be quite as valuable as an English degree.

In higher education, as in secondary, there is too much pressure on the academic and linguistic sides. There is not enough field for the employment of graduates turned out by the Indian universities, and large numbers of them are still unemployed. There is unhealthy competition among the universities of some provinces for students, and a tendency to lower the standards. These unemployed graduates, and the far larger number who have spent a few years in college without succeeding in getting a degree, form a serious problem in Indian public life. They have spent considerable sums in obtaining a mainly academic education. They are prone to attribute their hard lot to the present system of education or even of government, and naturally become seriously discontented. The learned professions are crowded; some graduates go in for business and trade, but there is no room for them all. Although many of them come originally from villages, they hardly ever return to them when they have finished their education. When there are enormous possibilities in improvement and organization, it is a pity that no use is made of these young men as real rural missionaries.

The student class in all countries has been intensely interested in current political questions and in recent days we read of agitation on the part of students in places so widely separated as Germany, Spain, Greece, South America, China and India. Young people are easily excited by any emotional appeal to patriotism, and where political conditions are not ideal, students are always in the vanguard of extreme movements. Political leaders find them the easiest material, and by working on their emotional temperament, can get them to engage in activities from which older men often shrink. Many extremist leaders who initially used students for their political agitation have found too late their mistake, as they themselves are supplanted when a more extreme leader appears. The problem of students and politics is doubly difficult in India where the rule of foreigners is an easy target for attack. Repression has been tried,

but has always failed. Something can be done in the way of diverting emotional energies in the direction of corporate student activities and of encouraging social work. But most depends upon the personality of the teacher, who should be prepared to discuss the various problems of the day personally with his students, sympathize with their point of view, and then point out to them that political leadership requires a good deal of thought, knowledge, and judgment, and that young men are not quite fitted for the hard life of a politician. These indirect ways will do something to reduce this problem to proper dimensions, but it must be expected that, until political conditions are better, until Indians can look other nations of the world in the face as self-respecting people who control their own destiny, there will always be a tense feeling among young men and women who are learning to think on their country's problems.

The vague dissatisfaction with the prevailing educational system is typified by the insistent demand for national education. When one comes to examine this demand more closely and logically, one finds several streams of thought among its advocates. One small section harks back to some ideal past age when India was prosperous and happy, and aims at putting back the hands of the clock of world civilization. Another section would base the educational system on religion, but as there are so many religions in India this section gets divided into many sub-sections. This class of opinion is essentially in favour of denominational schools and colleges, forgetting that these only tend to emphasize the anti-national bias. A third wishes to treat the subjects of history and economics from the Indian point of view. There appears to be some reason in this view, as in the earlier days of English education, European teachers and writers often tended to belittle Indian achievements of the past, to apply economic theories suited to a well developed country also to economically backward countries like India, and to impose an inferiority complex on the plastic mind of youth. A fourth class lays great stress on the development of Indian languages and inveighs against the so-called tyranny of English in the educational system. Again, there is some substance of reason in this view. Finally, there is the class that considers national educa-

tion to mean technical and scientific education. For a rational system we must have a synthesis of all these points of view, and the energies of Indian educationists should be directed to produce it.

Fortunately, in recent years the subject of education has been mainly in Indian hands. The predominance of the European in the higher educational hierarchy is fast disappearing, and Indian leaders can put their own ideas into practice. In the future, education will be completely in Indian hands, and if Indians are prepared to make the necessary effort, both personal and economic, there is no reason why their educational system should not be as complete as any in the world. It is only by means of a comprehensive educational development that India can rise to her true position among other nations.

Mrs. Ramshuri Nehru, Secretary of the Social Section of the All India Women's Conference, gave a very interesting address on women's education in India, of which the gist is given below.

WOMEN'S education in India is of comparatively recent growth. The prejudice in India against it no longer exists. The demand for education at the present time is so great that the supply does not meet it, and there are still very vast areas which have no educational facilities for girls. The educated women of India are trying now to do as much as lies within their power to reform the present system as well as to expand it to the fullest extent possible.

The ideal of education is the culture of an individual, physically, morally and intellectually; looked at from that point of view, the education that we have at present is to a great extent defective. As regards the physical side, I find that not enough attention is paid to the culture of the body and to the maintenance of the scholars' health. As regards the spiritual culture, I find that, owing to the policy of religious neutrality in all Governmental schools, there is no teaching of any kind of religion whatever. What is wanted by the Nationalist women of India is a certain bias for spiritual training, not based on any sectional doctrines. It is a very difficult thing to achieve, but still, certain efforts are being made to devise common prayers for the

use of schools, to prepare textbooks which will give the best in all religions, which will give the lives of the greatest in all religions, for the common use of all pupils belonging to all communities in the schools and colleges run by state and other agencies. It is hoped that if this system is adopted, it will create a great force to remove the communal differences that exist in India to-day.

As far as moral training goes, a great deal of it should come through practical work. Very generally in girls' schools and colleges, there are no sections for social service. This may perhaps be because the girls are not free to move about to do such service; but it is so essential that means must be adopted to organize social service leagues in all girls' schools and colleges in India.

Then comes the intellectual development of the individual. Here also, we find many defects. First and foremost amongst them is, that in the upper classes of schools as well as colleges, the medium of education is English. English is necessary for us, but we do not want to have it as the medium of our learning. This is specially serious in the case of girls, because, generally speaking, girls do not have as much time at their disposal for learning as boys have. It is not very difficult for us to learn the subjects in our own languages. This has been tried in the University of Hyderabad. All education there is imparted through ~~Oudh~~ Urdu.

There is one thing that is specially felt by the women of India, namely, that in the general curriculum a proper place is not given to the history and biography of the Indian people; wherever this history and biography is taught, it is taught in such a way as not to engender pride in our own people.

We consider the ideal of education to be the fitting of an individual to the life vocation. In our country, apart from those few girls who take up careers, most girls marry and have to manage a home. No effort in our system of education is made to fit girls for this vocation. Domestic science is very much neglected in the schools as well as in the colleges. It is generally felt that girls who come out of our schools are inferior mothers. This reproach must be removed if we want still further to popularize the education of women in our country, and if we want to take the fullest advantage of it.

Educational Problems in some Colonial Dependencies

Rt. Hon. W. ORMSBY GORE, M.P.

Late Chairman of the Advisory Committee on Native Education in Tropical Africa

A STUDY of recent educational experience in the Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories is interesting for the new angle of vision from which to test some of our educational theories of a domestic or even universal character. Broadly speaking, our educational ideals and practice have been evolved from the top downwards. We are beginning to realize how the University Entrance examinations have indirectly coloured and in some cases distorted education far down in the early years at a public elementary school. The influence of the School Certificate examinations is now being widely discussed, and we are beginning to be conscious of an influence which for long we tolerated unconsciously; and the very foundations of standards now accepted in the Colonies are being overthrown in England.

When visiting Free Town, Sierra Leone, in 1926, I was informed that educated African society was largely graded—for social purposes—into (1) those had passed the Cambridge senior, (2) those who had passed the Cambridge junior, (3) those who had tried to pass the Cambridge junior and failed, (4) those who had not even tried. In 1928 I found in British Malaya, both in Chinese and Malay schools, the same universal direct or indirect influences of these Cambridge external examinations. It was discernible in every phase of the curriculum in all schools other than the vernacular, where alone some freedom and variety of experiment was possible. The influence was particularly noticeable in the teaching of 'English' as a subject. The 'set' books, whether prose or poetry, played a large part. It is easy to criticize, but far harder to replace or provide a better alternative. There is a hunger for 'standards', for an almost political sense of 'equal standards', with those of the Mother Country of the Empire. It is also of course easier for inspectors, teachers, and others, trained in England to follow English methods and standards, but the real basis is

the desire for and belief in copying the centre of the Empire.

There is, naturally, a time lag between the advance of reform in England and its imitation overseas. In the West Indies you will find England being imitated in most things including education, but with a very distinct time lag indeed. The value of these imitations carried out against a different historical, social and racial background lies in the fresh revelation that this changed background gives us of our own past and present. I believe few things can so stimulate a student of the science of education as the sight of educational phenomena—I use the word advisedly—that have been 'transplanted'.

A paradoxical or contrary movement is taking place at the same time. In vernacular education, and even in some of the English education which is not too much dominated by examination standards, a great deal of useful and suggestive experimental work is being done in the tropical dependencies. We are rather successful when we are strictly empirical, just as we are apt to fail when we try to become philosophic or doctrinaire. And circumstances, particularly circumstances in East and West Africa, have forced us to be empirical before we could be doctrinaire.

In East and West Africa there dwell to-day just about forty million African negroes. The vast majority live in forms of society roughly called tribal, i.e. where the individual's position is regulated by status within a dominant community rather than by property, where, until our advent within the last forty years, there was no knowledge of any written script, where there was no urban or industrial life, and where agriculture and animal husbandry were the sole foundations of economic life. Mere physical existence presents to these millions quite different problems of adjustment from that which it does to us. We require housing, clothing and fuelling against our winter. The African does

not. But whereas insects play a comparatively rare and uneventful part in our lives they are playing a terrific part in the problems of physical existence in the tropics, not only for man but for his domestic animals and his few economic plants. In Africa mankind is everywhere engaged in an internecine war with mosquitoes, ticks and tsetse flies, not merely for mastery of the richest parts of the continent, but for actual life. It is impossible to exaggerate the significance and omnipresence of this war, which in Great Britain we find it impossible to visualize unless we have personally experienced it.

In our approach to science in the schools, we in England turn instinctively to chemistry, physics and mechanics. The African's approach to science must be as naturally and instinctively through biology, for the operation of biological laws—especially microbiological laws—is ever present to him in a manner which we only casually consider during some sensational epidemic and then dismiss as comparatively irrelevant.

But while the contrasts of the physical background are striking, those of the religious, moral and intellectual background are even more striking. We are either consciously or unconsciously influenced at every turn and in every act by the varying impact of three formative influences of immense potency, (1) Christianity, (2) Greek and Roman philosophy and literature, (3) the modern scientific post-Newtonian movement. Between them, these give us a residual code of behaviour, ideals, beliefs, taboos, and some estimate of our place in the universe. Above all, they permeate and dominate our educational system.

Do let us remember that until we Europeans penetrated and partitioned Africa, the millions of native inhabitants had got along in their own way without a notion of these basic axioms of our civilization. Above all, they had developed complex religions and codes of their own—quite different from ours—and in many ways these religious and ethical ideas affected their actual lives far more consciously than ours do our lives. We call the non-converted African a 'pagan', without realizing that this pagan is usually a far more religious animal than we are, and that religion plays a dominating part in his general make-up. We may think it what we call 'superstitious', but what we call superstition is a

very real religion to him. We are not pouring the new wine of western education into empty bottles, but into very old and well-used bottles.

Now the pioneers of all educational effort in tropical Africa were Christian missions. Education came to Africa as the handmaid of Evangelism, Christian and Mohammedan, to serve the primary needs of Evangelism subordinated to that end. Fortunately, in my personal opinion, there was competition between the missions, and this competition made and makes for educational progress.

Up to ten years ago the Colonial governments had little enough revenue for even skeleton administration and the beginnings of economic development, let alone any money for education.

The sudden economic advance of tropical Africa has revolutionized the scene. Government is required not merely to supervise, and secure efficiency on the secular side of missionary education but to subsidize it, and provide directly educational institutions to supplement the mission activity which still goes on both by Christianity and Islam.

An important step in the development of deliberate educational policy was taken in 1923, when the Duke of Devonshire, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, created the New Advisory Committee on Native Education in the African Colonies at the Colonial Office. The work of this Committee has since been extended to give advice on all forms of education throughout the dependencies of Downing Street. It has been possible for the Committee in the light of the data it has collected to submit memoranda to the Secretary of State for use by all Colonial governments on various specific subjects of educational interest. The memoranda of this Committee are supplemented by the journal *Overseas Education*, edited by one of the secretaries of the Committee.

The Chief Memorandum on Educational Policy, Command Paper 2374 of 1925, lays down that 'Education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and traditions of the various peoples and races'; and the main effort of recent educationists in the British tropics has been to put this ideal into practice. The first obvious adaptation required is the use of the language of the pupil's home and family as the basis of elementary education.

The provision of the necessary school literature in African vernaculars is one of the bottle-necks of educational progress. Yet it is one of the most urgent and important duties to secure its production, not merely so as to ensure continuity of cultural tradition but to ensure that the English textbook evil is not repeated in Africa. As you may judge, one of the real difficulties of the educationist in Africa is to get readers written in the native idiom, whether in a vernacular or English, which deal with facts and ideas reasonably within the comprehension and experience of the African child. Only men and women thoroughly familiar with African life and African methods of thought can accomplish this.

This brings me to the second great difficulty or bottle-neck, namely, the provision of adequately trained native teachers. I take it as axiomatic that any attempt to staff elementary schools in tropical Africa with European teachers is out of the question financially, and undesirable from the point of view of the future of African society and culture. The numbers of Africans who now or in the next few years will obtain a secondary or higher education is necessarily small, and it is all-important that the education these few receive should be thorough, and of first-rate quality. Above all, that the higher education should not denationalize them but rather prepare the fortunate few to be leaders of their own people. This latter idea is peculiarly important owing to the characteristic make up of African tribal society. In native society the group or community usually invests its chosen native authority with power and respect. In fact, the sanctions behind chieftainship are usually religious as well as political in character. Accordingly, the special education of those Africans who are likely to be called upon to exercise special responsibilities in African society, is a real and urgent need having priority over mass education, especially where the policy of 'indirect' rule is being followed as in Nigeria, or the protectorate of Sierra Leone, or in Tanganyika or Uganda. Hence, definite institutions for the education of sons and nominees of chiefs is a feature of the educational system in those countries.

I must now return to the special problems of curriculum. So much of the outward disparity

between our western industrial civilization and the more primitive African agricultural civilization lies in our greater knowledge of and mastery over the forces of nature, especially of machines and technical craft. Further, the economic development of tropical Africa calls increasingly for Africans to man the railways, the motor lorries, to build, to carpenter, and to do a thousand things which are familiar to us and quite new and strange to the African, some of whom are now acquiring technical skill in a wide range of fields, particularly in the sphere of activities present by the coming of the motor vehicle.

The main point is this—whether provided by the school or not, technical education of a kind will affect and influence the African now inevitably caught up in a world movement. It is probably wise therefore that the school curricula should take account of this inevitable fact.

The African is undergoing at our hands a series of biological experiences on a vast scale. The African cattle are being treated in their thousands with double inoculation of live and dead serum against rinderpest. His own body is frequently being treated to injections for the cure of widely prevalent tropical diseases like yaws. It is probable that an actual majority of the African population is affected by malaria. Then there are parasites of man and his domestic animals to be combated. Hook worm alone is no little responsible for the so-called backwardness of Africa. Nearly half the total area of British tropical Africa, east and west, is under the shadow of various tsetse flies, whose significance in the economic and social spheres is an outstanding factor in the future of the continent. Then tropical agriculture with its problems wholly different from those of the temperate zones, particularly as regards the microbiology of the soil! In general, the African lives in intimate and continual contact with very special and particular biological forces. Our problem therefore is to invent a new educational method and technique to fill the need.

One more subject must be referred to, and that is the special problem of female education in native Africa, not merely in the Mohammedan areas, but in the pagan and Christian as well. African conceptions of the social order in this matter are apt to be what we nowadays would call mediæval. Yet clearly the race can-

not advance unless the women progress with the men. To-day, approximately one African female is receiving some schooling for every five males. No one can regard this as satisfactory. Here again we have not only to overcome indigenous traditions and prejudices but to think out anew in the light of African facts just how far and in what respects female education should be on the same lines as male, and in what differentiated.

To sum up, the interest of native education in tropical Africa is the challenge it provides to many of our accepted notions, the fresh opportunities for experiment and objective research. That such research, instituted on lines now prepared by Sir Percy Nunn, is urgently needed, I from my own experience can bear witness, and I hope that Sir Percy will soon see his project realized. [*Report of address*]

Education of the Non-European in Africa

[*Since lack of space forbids a full report of the sessions on this subject, salient points from various papers are given below*]

'The first thing which we have been striving for for a number of years, and which Central Africa has at last solved for itself, is the question of the Union language. . . . Kenya, Uganda, Zanzibar and Tanganyika Territory to-day are largely using common Swahili text-books for their vernacular education. . . .

'The proposals are that we should add two years to the village school system as a qualification for teacher training. . . . This training is being given a very definite biological foundation, and will, we believe, enable us to develop a system of rural schools in Africa which will tend to keep the African interested in his own home surroundings. . . .

'If you are going to provide an education which the child can appreciate, you should be able first of all to appreciate the child. And if you are going to appreciate the child, it means you must understand the community. . . . That is where we are looking to the scientists to help us.

'It is going to take a generation at least to get an adequate supply of capable Africans, who should be the natural social leaders and teachers of their own people. . . .

'From the village school the boy can pass out to his central school, where he can learn English; if he has passed a certain age, he may be given the opportunity to apprentice himself to an industry, which is attached to the central school. This is practically the key to our whole educational system. We have now no indepen-

dent industrial schools, because the African used to be so prone to despise manual labour. . . . Under the present system, if the boy fails in his first year in English, he has the option still to go off into the industrial section of the same school. If he happens to be the sub-chief of his tribe he loses no prestige in doing this.'

*Dr. S. Rivers-Smith, Director of Education,
Tanganyika*

'The African woman has a very distinct and honourable place in African society. She is the provider of food. Because of this she is the chief agricultural worker, the only cook, the chief person in the home, and besides that, she takes an active part in the social and political life of the community and the tribe. . . . We must aim at the training of the African for the service of her own race, yet linked with the outer world.'

*Mrs. Macgregor Ross, formerly President
of the East African Women's League, Kenya*

'A native with the slightest degree of information more than the rest of the people of his native village, is in his own mind, and in the minds of those who surround him, virtually a teacher. He is willing to impart immediately what he has got in the way of information to those who have not got it. . . . Thus the attitude of Africans to the white members of the British Empire depends on native teachers to an extent which is wholly unrecognized by the native teachers themselves and very largely by the administrative officials.

*F. S. Livie-Noble, Hon. Secretary of the
London Group on African Native Affairs*



*A 'Bush' School in an
outlying District*

[Gaeta State School,
Queensland



A Corner of the Library

[Waitaki Boys' High School,
Oamara, New Zealand

An Experiment in Bilingualism

SOME years ago the late D. J. Saer and Professor Frank Smith carried out a series of intelligence tests among Welsh school children. Monoglot children almost invariably did better in these tests than children who spoke both English and Welsh, and it was concluded that early bilingualism is probably harmful to a child. This was less marked in urban districts than in rural, and the investigators postulated that if the second language is learned during play, as it tends to be in towns, it causes less emotional conflict than if it is learned in school, and becomes the language for the solution of conscious problems of everyday life.

In 1930 and 1931, Miss H. Saer carried out a series of experiments at the suggestion of Dr. George H. Green, under a new technique devised by him to demonstrate the possibility of classifying bilinguals into distinguishable types for separate and intensive investigation. The subjects tested were fifty secondary school girls (aged eleven to nineteen) at Llanelly, Carmarthenshire. The method was based on the familiar word-association experiments of Jung.

Fifty words were chosen, each signifying a situation, a person, an object or an activity which should enter significantly into the life of a child by the time he is three years old. These fall into natural groups: members of the family, familiar animals, natural phenomena (e.g. sun, moon, rain), activities (play, dance, cry, kiss). Each word was translated into the Welsh equivalent current in that district. The experiment was conducted as follows:

The girl was seated facing the examiner, but placed so that she could not see the word-list or record book. The examiner asked her: 'Will you help me with an experiment to find out how well you use Welsh and English? Tell me exactly what comes into your mind when I suddenly say a word to you. . . . If I say an English word, and a Welsh word comes to your mind, tell me the word. If I say a Welsh word, give me an English or Welsh answer as it comes, and as quickly as you can.' The stimulus words were given in random order. The 'reaction time' was taken by means of a stop-watch, and this time, as well as the actual response to

the stimulus word, was recorded.

The results so obtained were most carefully examined to discover to what extent a very similar association resulted in each language; what proportion of Welsh words called forth a response in English and vice versa; in what words the association tended to be a mere translation into the other language; and so on. The word-pairs themselves were graded in order of 'difficulty'—a difficult pair being one in which the Welsh and English responses differed very much. The most difficult words in this sense were: Cusany/kiss; Duw/God; and Llonydd/quiet. Chwaer/sister was more difficult than Tad/father, which was more difficult than Mam/mother and Brawd/brother. Forc/fork, Eglwys/church and Cwpan/cup were the easiest.

It was found that mere translations were more often given to 'difficult' than to 'easy' stimulus words, perhaps because by translation the real response was concealed. Then the responses to 'easy' word-pairs were remarkably similar throughout the group, whereas the responses to difficult word-pairs varied considerably with the individual. A careful record of the child's home background was compounded, to show how far the difficulty felt was directly due to it. In a number of cases there was evidence that the two members of the word-pair had not acquired the significance of a single situation, but that the two members referred to different situations. For example, 'llonydd' referred to quiet in its usual sense, whilst 'quiet' stood for the enforced silence of the classroom. There were more responses in Welsh to easy stimulus words, though on the whole there was a considerably higher percentage of answers in English.

It is hoped that the examination of the responses and length of reaction really does provide us with a useful tool for the investigation of the emotional factors involved in the phenomenon of bilingualism. Experiments on exactly these lines could be carried out in every part of the Commonwealth where similar conditions obtain.

[From a very interesting paper read by Miss H. Saer, B.A.]

Inter-Racial Understanding

H. J. FLEURE, D.Sc.

Professor of Geography in the University of Manchester; Honorary Secretary of the Geographical Association

IT is a feature of the British Empire that it has become an agglomeration of nearly all the peoples under heaven, and its citizens therefore have special duties in seeing to the welfare of the whole. There are a few peoples, it is true, who hardly count in the Empire's general responsibilities, small and rather pathetic remnants of ancient peoples, without herding or cultivating skill. These peoples seem unable as a rule to face European civilization and they are mostly decreasing; kindness and care is all that can be given them.

Concerning most others we need to speak with more reserve than has sometimes been done. The indigenous agriculturists of tropical Africa have been set down as inherently inferior to ourselves, and, while there may be elements of truth here, it is well to remember that, before our opportunity came, the peoples of Europe were mentioned by Egyptians as inferior folk with pale skins in the dismal north.

An opportunity, for good and ill, has come to the indigenous Africans in the last half century, and in the midst of deep changes it is impossible to see what the outcome may be. There is evidence of an awakening of political consciousness in the facts that Kikuyu and other chiefs have been giving evidence to committees in London and that South African and other coloured folk are finding for themselves ways of learning many things, of trying to rise out of their inferior position. Whether we will it or not, a vast change is taking place, and it is a change that can be guided by educational systems, provided we realize that schools and such like are but a fraction of an education system and that economic intercourse and white men's examples count for a very great deal.

The stimulus to other races provided by contacts with Europe is, of course, illustrated in a still more remarkable way in the monsoon lands of Asia, where it has affected peoples of complex ancient civilization and has aroused them to an intense desire for self-realization inde-

pendent of European direction, a desire most successfully developed in Japan, but developing in ways that bring us difficult problems in both China and India.

It may be urged that circumstances are forcing the pace in Asia and Africa, and we are witnessing the attempt of other peoples to get through in fifty years an evolution that has taken us hundreds or thousands of years. Little wonder, therefore, if some of the results we observe seem poor and patchy; they could not be otherwise as yet. We shall be far wiser if we remember what immense changes have come to them in fifty years, and if we realize that a sum in compound interest should be worked out with a very high rate of increment. Let us not be in a hurry to fix limits, and let us in our education systems beware of acting as though there were limits fixed by nature. Sometimes it is true that we fix limits by our own political schemes, and I must touch on one at least of these in so far as it affects education.

It is one of the features of contact with western European civilization that unrest and disintegration of rather static or traditional features of society ensue, so that the Chinese, for example, justifiably call us the White Peril. The disintegrated societies yield individuals who are sometimes without any other aim than that of imitating what they can of our scheme of life. If, therefore, we disintegrate native society, whether we wish it or not, we must try to find some means of soothing the unrest created. Our French neighbours have thought this out on lines that differ from ours. They disintegrate native society without regret, and teach French ways and accept the native African as soon as he has a modicum of knowledge of French ways. We, on the other hand, disintegrate native society only with regret, and the story of West Africa tells of remarkable attempts to maintain many of its essential features. But we are not prepared to accept even the educated native as the equivalent of an Englishman socially. We thus tend

to build a wall across the African's vista, and we, in educating ourselves and in helping him to educate himself, have somehow or other to get that wall knocked down.

This is a complicated problem of politics and social economics. There is an educational aspect both for the white side and for the black. For the white side there is an urgent need of education in native language and custom. If public responsibilities or landholding by white men can be made to involve knowledge of some real native language (not such a language as is Swahili in Kenya or Uganda) and of native custom in land tenure, there will be less likelihood of friction through ignorance. On the native side there is need for education in village building, in cultivation and herding that could make the native raise his standard of living very materially. Along with this should surely go a great deal of instruction in the use of English, in calculation and in native custom, so that the native leaders may be able to take part in discussing inevitable changes. We do not want the preparation of indigenous children for British examinations, but they need an education which gives them the open vista; they must feel that they have the possibility of a destiny higher than that of being hewers of wood and drawers of water for the white man.

It is worth while here to draw attention to the danger there is of over-emphasizing technical education for a trade or for clerkships. Denmark in the second half of the nineteenth century achieved a great result in co-operative dairying, and, while technical training played its part in this movement, the mainspring was the non-technical education in the folk high schools, an education in working together, in æsthetic appreciation, in culture of the body. Why should we not think out a course of general history that would be of use to most of the races of mankind? It could tell us about the hunters' modes of life and the change to cultivation and herding, with the differences that ensued as the latter arts spread from land to land.

The case of India lies heavily on all our minds, and there we are confronted with an ancient civilization about which even educated people, both on the indigenous and on the European side, know too little. There we have cause to ask that both the whites in India and the native

leaders may have much more opportunity of studying the history of India conceived as an evolution of social and economic life. It will be to the great advantage of both sides if that evolution is studied *pari passu* with a survey of the evolution of the West. Unfortunately, Indian pupils are apt to learn by rote from books. As a corrective, had I the opportunity, I should be much tempted to try the effect of a training in mechanics with many simple experiments.

I feel that behind too much of our teaching and writing there lurks the unwarranted assumption that our scheme of society, its mass production, its assumption that profit seeking is the main aim, its impatience of tradition, are all part of the best that man knows. They represent a culture-form that has been spreading over the earth with astonishing results. In mass production I see culture threatened at its very heart, largely because capital accumulates in hands that lack the competence to exercise the responsibilities of leadership, and so become receivers of interest rather than thoughtful of new movements. In other words, we have not solved the problem of continuance.

In the rest of the world outside Europe the idea of continuance is very strong. Principal Fraser [Achimota College, Accra, Gold Coast] has it that the living are the trustees for the great cloud of witnesses they will join at death when they have begotten new trustees to carry on the endless trust. In Europe it would probably be fair to say that the French have this sense more highly developed than ourselves and consequently many have the strong conviction that the reckless increase of population in Britain and Germany in the nineteenth century is one main reason for the world's present troubles. It is incontrovertible that we could learn something really valuable from the peoples of Africa and Asia in the sphere of social responsibility and continuance.

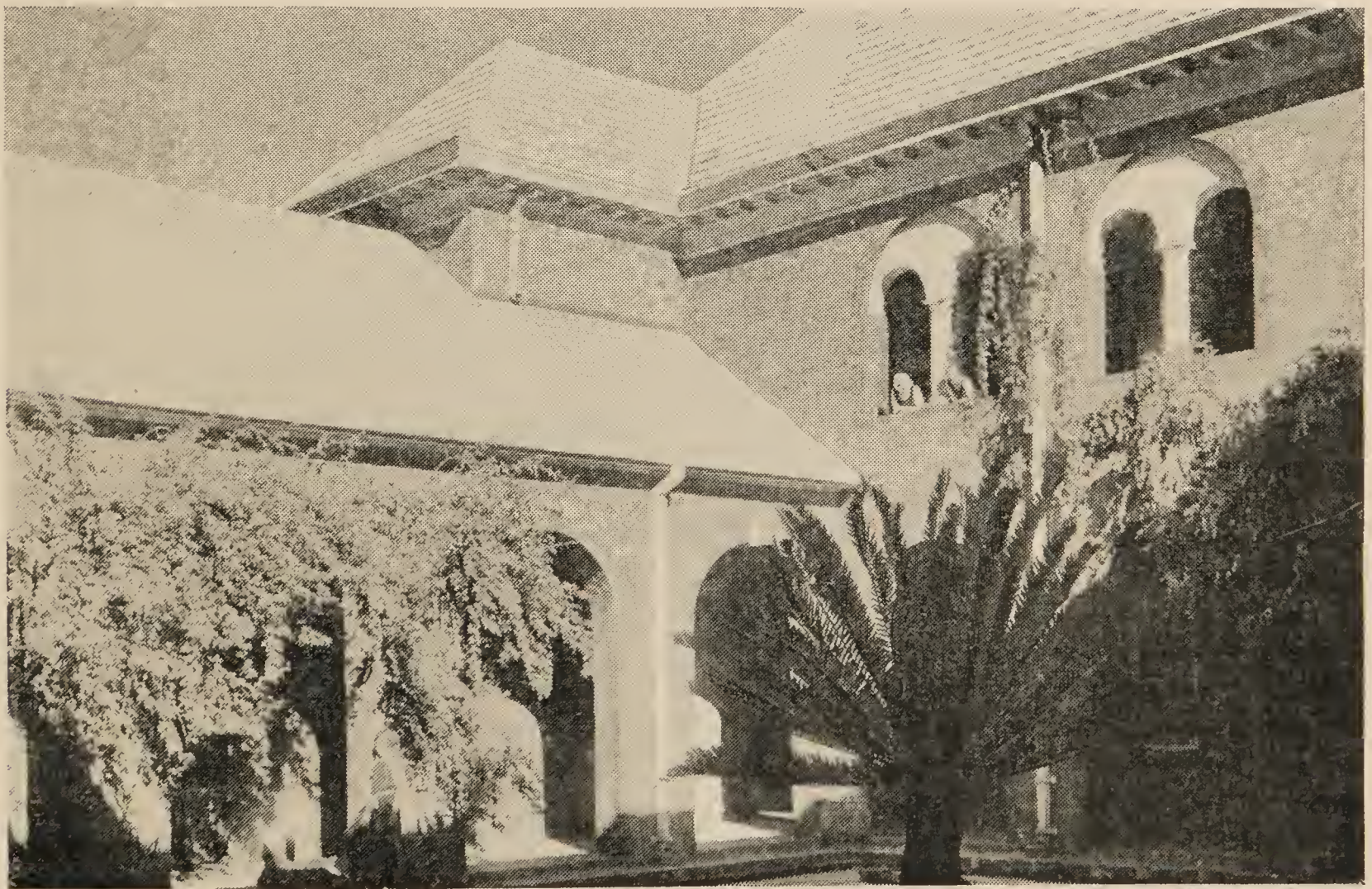
We must think of the world's peoples as groups seeking the good life in different ways with different difficulties and opportunities. Education along those lines is surely a method of working for inter-racial and international understanding and appreciation, an aim to attain which goodwill is not sufficient: we need knowledge and serious thought.

[Report of address]



An Afrikaans Medium Government School

[Oos School, Pretoria



One of the Quadrangles

[Girls' High School, Pretoria

Changing Education—A Survey

THERE is no burking the fact; education is changing and must change, to meet the needs of a changing world. The Conference left no room for doubt that there is a sure advance in educational method along evolutionary lines in all parts of the British Commonwealth. Problems were faced and solutions, or rather attempts at solution, pooled. Many of the contributors dealt with fundamental questions that exercise the minds of all educationalists. Many, too, dealt with particular difficulties that are being tackled in the different parts of the Empire. In all there was evidence of effort and enthusiasm, and of a frank and ready spirit of co-operation. Since 'Outlook Tower' and Dr. R. C. Wallace give general impressions of the Conference, we propose to deal here with non-local, basic points, with actual changes in the approach to educational matters.

The Psychological Approach Education is no longer concerned merely with the instruction of fact. Teachers are recognizing, what the best of them have always known: that their business is to develop each pupil's innate capacity, and to help him to adjust himself to the requirements of society—a harder thing than ever in this mechanical age. This new psychological approach is responsible for our changing ideas of discipline. Corporal punishment no longer fits the crime; the teacher must replace this speedy safety-valve by a study of the cause and treatment of misbehaviour. This will be greatly facilitated by the habitual recognition of the various psychological types; for much that was once considered naughtiness was only the natural restiveness of a child under a mental diet quite unfitted to its needs. Dr. Margaret Lowenfeld and Dr. Hamilton Pearson both gave admirable summaries of their work in this department. The latter showed that 'mind must not be regarded as an entity capable of conforming to standards, but as the contents of three component parts': the intellectual, the emotional and the practical. He pointed out how unlike are the workings of these three factors. For example, 'the memory of the intellectual mind is associative . . . that of the emotional mind is the memory of emotional state

. . . that of the practical mind is the memory of movement'. Thus, since the component parts are so diverse, their various combinations offer great variety. Moreover, 'they are very definite and real; what is possible for one is impossible for another, and they cannot change'.

If, then, every class in every school contains a collection of eight or nine different psychological types, each capable of a different *kind* of output, and in need of different 'food', a far greater differentiation of curriculum is demanded. And if this is impracticable until the examination system itself allows of a less rigid preparation, teachers can lessen the burden on their pupils by seeing to it that their own attitude is flexible and individualistic, at least in intent.

However, examiners themselves are alive to the need for change. Professor Cyril Burt claimed that, generally speaking, examiners are extremely vague as to the aims which they have in view, while Mr. B. C. Wallis, chief examiner to the L.C.C., said: 'It is time we woke up and did something. We want research, because we have never been taught our job.' Professor Patrick Geddes complained that examinations are a handicap to all progressive teachers, and gave breadth and dignity to his theme by defining his ideals: 'What we need now is to make collective endeavours towards renewing earlier conceptions of a general and harmonious culture amid our modern Babel of specialisms'.

The whole question needs vigorous handling, and is more complicated than it appears. For since in a democratic country every child must be catered for, it would seem that the secondary school curriculum must be divorced from university requirements. Yet in securing this there is grave danger of the penalization of the academic child. Somehow the aristocracy of intellect must be preserved, but the non-academic child must not be considered inferior. The only solution is to broaden the conception and employment of individual methods in education. Our rigid system of class teaching must be broken up. Many experiments are being carried out in all types of schools. At the Conference there was a special section in which some of

those who have been experimenting gave an account of their efforts. The Decroly, the Dalton and the Project methods have already many disciples, and it is to be hoped that their spirit will pervade even the most rigid of the older schools in time.

Psychological Wholeness Dr. James Kerr put forward a strong plea for the nursery school. Education must begin early, for at present a great deal of harm is being done to the children before they come to school. Moreover, good nursery schools will facilitate the achievement of that psychological wholeness in the education of a child which modern psychologists consider so important. At present there is often a grim division between the play-learning of the kindergarten and the formal class-discipline of the lower forms of an ordinary school, and an even harder transition from the primary to the secondary school. Since a secondary school education for every child is now an accepted aim, great effort will have to be made to obviate these jolts and unsettling changes.

Parent-Teacher Co-operation But often the grimmest division of all is that between the home-life and the school life of a child. The only bridge for this lies in co-operation between parent and teacher. This is coming to be recognized as a pressing need all over the commonwealth, yet there still seem to be barriers to its achievement. 'The parent has the full emotional experience of motherhood or fatherhood; the teacher has opportunities for the study of psychology and child development. These differences have given rise in the past to mutual resentment and jealousy', says Dr. Glaister.

'What we want of our parents is that they should understand the difficulty of growing up', said Dr. Lowenfeld. 'The great difficulty we find with so many parents is that they tend at all points to put standards of complete maturity on to quite tiny shoulders . . . I should like all parents to understand the price that is paid by their children for outward conformity to the parents' code of what is right and what is wrong, and I should also like to see parents alter their code. I should like to see parents substitute sincerity for hypocrisy in dealing with their children.' But parents got praise as well as

blame. 'I am amazed', said Dr. Moodie, 'at the number of parents in London who are aware that there is something wrong with their children, and who will do everything in their power to co-operate with us in putting things right'. And it is this wise co-operation between parent and teacher that will best ensure that the child sees life as an unpuzzling whole. Miss Ishbel Macdonald, presiding at Dr. Crichton-Miller's lecture for the Home and School Council, further emphasized the need for this co-operation, and welcomed the fact that so many of the more progressive schools are starting Parent-Teacher Co-operative Associations and are finding through them solutions for many of their problems.

Dr. Angus Macrae gave an able summary of the work of the vocational guidance section of the Institute of Industrial Psychology. 'Looking at the future', he said, 'we hope that vocational guidance will be conducted in the schools by teachers specially trained in psychological methods, that it will be regarded as the culmination of the teacher's task, the logical conclusion of the whole process of education. Meantime, we believe that the best compromise lies in co-operation between the parent, the teacher, and the outside psychological specialist.'

*The Aesthetic Approach*¹ The emotional side of the child has been too long denied and crushed in school. Drama, group speaking of verse and prose, music, both orchestral and choral, and dancing should be made an essential part of the school curriculum. Thus the æsthetic side would have full and spontaneous outlet, for 'acting is the child's way of understanding the world.'

In Mr. Merrill's conception of acting for young children there is no place for second-hand material. The children begin with Mother Goose, working the rhythm up spontaneously into plays, drawing upon their own experience in making them. Several children will be allowed to take each part, and no negative suggestion should be made on any child's effort. He quoted examples of children who had been transformed in their outlook by playing a part that revealed something to them, and each child must know the whole play, not merely his own part. He insisted upon the value of re-

¹ See March 1931 issue of *The New Era*

hearsal, rather than of the final show.

Mr. T. R. Dawes told about his tours in France and Germany with a troupe of nine boys. He emphasized the social value of this as training in world citizenship, and suggested that the drama makes a better meeting ground than sport. Mr. G. C. Matthews had made similar excursions, covering 1,000 miles in France with a group of pupils who gave nine performances of *Macbeth*.

How astonishingly beautiful a thing children's acting can be was shown by the performance of the *Water Babies* by Miss Gilpin's pupils of the Hall School, Weybridge, Surrey. Here Stanislavski's ideal was realized, for there were no 'stars'. Each performer played his part perfectly, as a direct contribution to the beauty of the whole.

This performance provided an example of how the various arts can be used in the most natural way in the dramatization of a theme. The children had constructed the play from Kingsley's book and from many other appropriate sources—the poems of Wordsworth, Longfellow, Blake; music of Schubert and Schumann; folk-songs of England and Ireland; it was interesting to see what a sure instinct for what was fitting the children had shown.

The staging was very simple and effective, representing in turn a street, a country road, a bed-room, a school, a stream, the sea, the scenes following each other without a break. Necessary moving of properties was carried out by children moving rhythmically in view of the audience. The total effect was that of a narrative told in a series of episodes, using mime, gesture, song, eurhythmics, solo and choral verse speaking, prose speaking, grouping, colour and design—in fact every art that could possibly be represented on the stage. The play progressed in elaborateness of colour from a simple silhouette effect of black costumes against a gold ground in the first scene to a gay patchwork effect in the last. The performance was memorable to all who saw it.

Other very interesting demonstrations were those of Dalcroze Eurhythmics, conducted by Miss Ethel Driver, with the delightful representation of a rugger scrum, and the rhythmical dancing of pupils of the Margaret Morris School, with their perfect control and beauty of

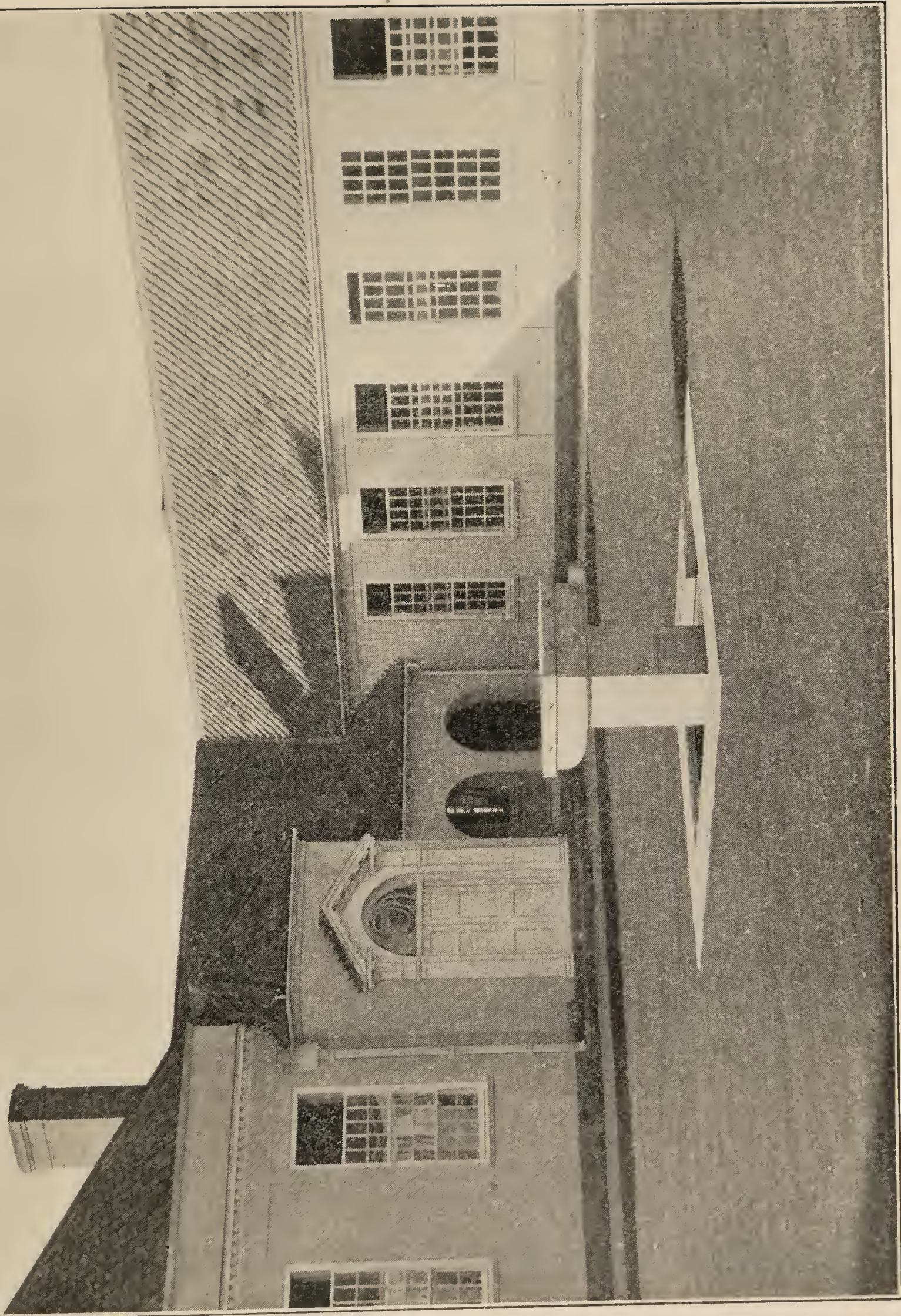
poise and costume, which lovers of pure form may have enjoyed even more than the spontaneous gaiety of the eurhythmics.

*Scientific Aids to Education*¹ Finally we come to the adaptation of modern scientific invention to the needs of modern education. As Miss A. G. Phillip (chief woman Inspector to the Board of Education) says: 'We must in our schools accept modern life as it stands. . . . We must have wireless in the schools. After all, it is in the homes, and it is now part of the everyday life, like books. Those people who are fighting tooth and nail against the cinema, wireless, jazz music or ballroom dancing should, in my opinion, either retire into an ivory tower or else submit themselves to skilled analysis'. In view of this, it was interesting to see with what enthusiasm the children took part in Mr. C. Bavin's demonstration lesson in musical appreciation with the gramophone. The younger group, their lesson done, were asked if any of them would care to stay on for the senior lesson. This they one and all elected to do.

Mr. G. T. Hankin, a member of the governing body of the International Institute of Educational Cinematography, urged the need for energetic action on the part of educationalists to raise both the scope and the standard of taste of the film industry. Mr. Frank Hoare hailed in the educational film a new method of arousing and concentrating the interest of the children, and of liberating teachers from the mechanical teaching of elementary subjects. He claimed that, far from leaving the child in a passive state of mind, such films 'helped to develop originality and a larger measure of self-activity.'

Mr. Lloyd James gave a most interesting demonstration of a lesson on the King's English, done by broadcasting. The B.B.C. demonstration, under the chairmanship of Dr. Walford Davies, was particularly attractive and successful; the audience dispersed reluctantly. Dr. Walford Davies spoke of the lasting effect of a sound lesson. There was some discussion on this point, some people urging that, except in the case of a child with excellent aural memory, such lessons would have to be followed up by the teacher.

¹ See August, 1931, issue of *The New Era*



A Corner of the Courtyard, showing the Fountain

[Sawston Village College, Cambridgeshire

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[The Cambridgeshire County Council have approved a scheme for the establishment of village colleges throughout the county, in which primary and adult education, agricultural demonstration and instruction, school and public health services, the county library service and outdoor recreative facilities, will all be co-ordinated. The colleges will also furnish a home for voluntary organisations such as the Women's Institutes, British Legion, Boy Scouts and Girl Guides. Each will serve the needs of the central village and a number of adjacent villages.]

The Home Background of the Pupil

DR. H. CRICHTON-MILLER, M.A., M. D., Hon. Director of the Tavistock Square Clinic, London, gave one of the most interesting papers of the whole conference. He treated his subject with humour and gravity, with sympathy, and a certain dramatic sense. And if in this drama of the true upbringing of the child, the teacher was the hero and the parent something of a villain, it must be remembered that the teacher was the audience, and that by stressing his difficulties, Dr. Crichton-Miller heightened his responsibilities, so sending him back with renewed vigour to that co-operation between himself and the parent for which Miss Ishbel MacDonald, as Chairman, so charmingly pleaded.

'You teachers remember that the parents will beat you every time.' This was a provocative opening sentence, and it was not meant to be mirth provoking. There is no use mincing matters. The whole paper was a fierce indictment of those parents whose incapacity is a danger to the state, and an appeal to the teacher to try to undo, after the age of five, the mischief that has been done by them to a child in the first five years of his life. For the true educator will concern himself with helping children to find their way through the difficult processes of herd-adjustment.

And the first lesson he must teach is that life is *trustworthy*. Long before he is of school age, the child of a capricious parent has come to think of this as an incalculable world, in which evasion and escape is the policy of safety. He must unlearn this mistrustful philosophy, and the teacher can only help him by being himself entirely trustworthy—not only level in temper, but without any taint of favouritism in his dealings.

Another background, as dangerous as the undependable, is the pessimistic. The parent who disparages his child and his chances in life, who says: 'If Tommy doesn't work harder he'll never get anywhere. If I hadn't made more effort than that at his age . . .', and so on, does not necessarily produce visible signs of nervous dread in the child's conduct. But he produces the child who works in duty-doing anxiety, under the compulsion of fear. A teacher's terrible tempta-

tion is to exploit these hard workers, whereas his true duty is to rid them of their fear.

A not less disastrous background is the competitive, materialistic, egotistic home, which produces a child who seems unable to work except for a prize. Certain children, by the time they are five years old, are capable of establishing a work-habit only under the lure of personal gain. They must not be disliked or too much blamed for their slowness in acquiring a more unselfish outlook.

Last and commonest victim of the unwise parent is the over-mothered child. He has found all his life that invalidism pays, that incapacity, assumed shyness and diffidence strengthen the bond between him and his mother, and that 'effort tends to come between him and the Nirvana of her spoiling'. Such a child makes no spontaneous effort, but is determined to get the limelight of his teacher's attention by the same means by which he captured his mother's. In such a case snubbing is never successful. The essence of a snub is, 'You have no value', whereas we all are, or should be, seeking a *personal value* as distinct from a value of status. The over-mothered child must be shown 'that there is something sweeter than dependence, and that is independence'.

Dr. Crichton-Miller next pointed out the importance of supplanting the competitive attitude by a contributive one. This is often made very difficult by the talk a child hears at home, where the father, in particular, tends to boast over his more blatant successes in a competitive world. By suppressing such talk in the presence of their children, parents could and should make much easier the inculcating in them of a team spirit. And team spirit is a wholesome and necessary thing, for it implies the limiting of personal freedom in the interests of the community. Personal freedom is a puzzling thing to a child; his elders too often boast of a cheap and spurious freedom; they know, and can stand up for, their 'rights'; whereas he himself is continually told what to do and how to do it, and all his privileges have to be asked for 'nicely'. It is difficult, under such circumstances, to teach him that true freedom lies in the ability to choose a personal purpose and in opportunity to pursue it.

Another very real difficulty is to combine some measure of culture and idealism with the heavy curriculum demanded by the present examination system. Examinations are necessary, but how can one ensure that residuum, 'left behind after one has forgotten all one has learned', which is permanent and intangible, and which never 'pays'? Nothing that is utilitarian ultimately furthers spiritual and intellectual independence; independence alone can free us from the need of false stimulus, and enable us to live fully and freely a life of our own. Parents must realize the value of such culture, and renounce that great pagan fallacy that 'those who do not reach Eldorado have failed'.

Dr. Crichton-Miller lays two other responsibilities on the shoulders of the true educationist. First, the 'mating destiny' of his pupils is his business, especially in the cases of children

who come from houses of discord. The teacher must remember that the attitude assumed by him to their problems is going to be the basis of their faith in later life. He must help them to go forward with a belief in a better thing than they have known in their own homes. Finally, he is bound to help the child in his adjustment to the Infinite, his basic philosophic attitude to life. Scripture lessons should be a means of helping him to meet not only with triumph but with disaster, and face the whole challenge of life, including its pain and suffering.

Dr. Crichton-Miller's final definition of true education demands the fullest co-operation between parent and teacher, and will surely be acceptable to both: that the child should learn 'to make his contribution without compulsion, to enjoy freedom without licence, and to achieve serenity without complacency'.

Advantages of the Nursery School

STUDY your pupils, for I am sure you do not know them.' This advice of Rousseau's, chosen by Miss Winifred Harley to introduce her Conference paper, may be said to have prepared the way for the scientific study of childhood. The need for research is now fully recognized; and it is those who have contributed most to research who emphasize most strongly the second part of Rousseau's saying. Ignorance knows nothing of unsolved problems; to the seeker after knowledge each step forward reveals new mysteries.

The note of inquiry was certainly one of the dominant notes which characterized the meetings arranged by the Nursery School Association of Great Britain to deal with the education of children from two to seven years of age. Among the speakers were two representatives of the well-known Merrill-Palmer School of Home Economics in Detroit—Miss Mary Sweeny, Assistant Director, and Miss Winifred Harley, who has worked for nine years in the nursery school which serves as laboratory for the girls and young women who come to study the science of home making. The nursery school was planned to provide the most favourable environment possible for the all-round growth—

physical, mental, spiritual—of young children. The school's endeavour was to be to find out by scientific observation and inquiry what habits of life, what diet, what amount of sleep, what occupations, were best for little children, and steadily to modify the environment in accordance with such findings.

As an example of the questions which are being studied in the Merrill-Palmer School, we may quote some raised by Miss Sweeny regarding sleep: What is the optimal amount of sleep needed for physical well-being and to ensure the best condition for growth and development during the early years? How is the child affected by having too little sleep? How great are normal individual differences? To what extent is the amount of sleep conditioned by habit? Is the instinct of sleep educable?

The manifold nature of the problems awaiting investigation was stressed also by Mrs. Susan Isaacs, Chairman of the Education Section of the British Psychological Society, who dwelt upon the unique opportunity offered by the British nursery schools for researches into the genetic psychology of young children, as well as into educational technique. The research value of the schools will, however, in her

opinion, be lost unless they are visualized from the start as a significant experiment in education and genetic psychology; unless they are planned as a whole with this aspect in view; unless properly trained and experienced investigators are available; and unless provision is made for adequate keeping of records of the children's behaviour, as a whole, and as a part of individual researches. Mrs. Isaacs also most opportunely emphasized the need for inquiry into the best method of record keeping.

The second dominant note of the Conference was the general recognition of the extreme importance of environmental factors in the early years of life. There seemed to be general agreement that much more than is being done at present could and should be done toward providing wholesome environment.

In speaking of the physical needs of children from two to seven years of age, Dr. James Kerr, formerly School Medical Officer for London, said that the purpose of the nursery school is to secure to every child the right of proper development as a potential citizen having greater interests in the country than any older person. The two to five age group contains one and three-quarter million children, and at present forms a 'neglected pool of multiplying disease'. In 1930, in the group of children between two and seven years of age, there were two thousand two hundred deaths from diphtheria, every one of which was due to neglect of someone to apply existing knowledge of prevention.

With the help of a series of lantern slides, Professor A. H. Harris, of University College, London, demonstrated growth periods in childhood, the connection between helplessness at birth with educability, and the scars left on bony structures by illnesses in childhood. Professor Harris considers that the springing up periods of growth are periods of greater susceptibility to illness, and that the illnesses of early childhood leave effects on the organism for a longer time than is commonly supposed. Dr. Gertrude Hickling, Child Welfare Medical Officer for Newcastle, contributed a paper on the place of the doctor in the school. The furniture, the lighting, the clothing of the children, the diet, the physical exercises, are all matters which have to be considered from the point of view of hygiene. The campaign for the nursery school

and the campaign against rickets are one and the same thing.

In considering the psychological needs of children under seven years, Dr. J. A. Hadfield pointed out that it is a profound mistake to treat all children alike or to demand from all the same standard of conduct. Generally speaking, a period of self-will is followed about the age of three by a period in which conduct is largely determined by suggestibility and identification. The child's personality is to a considerable extent organized by the age of four; when he becomes anxious for power, and for achievement, and so is willing to devote time and energy to the attainment of clearly perceived ends. He needs freedom for expression for which material must be provided and he needs guidance in his task of harmonizing his own innate tendencies.

On the third day of the Conference a brief history of the nursery school movement in Britain leading to a picture of a present-day nursery school was given by Miss Margaret Drummond, Vice-Chairman of the Nursery School Association. The picture was enriched by Miss Lowson, Miss Sutton and Miss Richards, Superintendents of British nursery schools, who discussed the equipment of garden and play room, and problems of organization and staff.

It is now universally felt by those who know most about young children that there should be no sudden change in the method of education at the age of five. On the last day of the Conference, Miss Florence Webb described a modern infants' school which children enter at the age of three, and in which those in every room are actively engaged in educative play and work suited to their age. Subsequently, Miss Kenwick, Head of the Preparatory Department, Maria Gray Training College, gave a vivid and convincing account of the efficacy of the project method of teaching in an infants' school.

Not the least enjoyable and instructive part of the Conference was the final meeting when two lecture demonstrations were given, one by Miss E. M. Cousins on speech training, and the other by Miss Winifred Houghton on rhythmic. No teacher of young children could fail to be inspired by the sympathetic atmosphere established by both teachers, and by the joyous response of both groups of children.

[Report of meetings]

International Notes

New Education Fellowship Conferences

Germany—A conference for German-speaking countries will be held at Dortmund in October, under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship. Details from Dr. Elisabeth Rotten, Kasernenstr. 20, Dresden, N.6.

Great Britain—The British Commonwealth Education Conference held in London during July drew 700 members and day visitors from the following countries:—Africa (South, East, West and Central), Australia, British West Indies, Canada, England, India, Irish Free State, Malta, New Zealand, Northern Ireland, Scotland, Straits Settlements, Tasmania, Wales, within the Commonwealth, and also from China, Czechoslovakia, Esthonia, France, Germany, Italy, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States.

A report of the conference will be ready in October.

Japan—This summer the members of the Fellowship in Japan held a conference at the foot of Mt. Fuji. Five hundred members attended and discussed among other topics 'The Principles of the New Education', 'The Psychology of Learning', 'Organization of the New School'. Members of the Fellowship group in Japan number approximately 1,000. A magazine is published *Shin-kyoiku-zasshi*. The Secretary is Mr. K. Uenuma, Fuji Shogakko, Asakusaku, Tokyo.

Poland—Over 150 teachers from Slavonic countries met at the Krolewski Palace, Warsaw, in July, under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship.

Scandinavia—From Widtskofle Castle, Vittskovle, where over 200 teachers are gathered under the auspices of the New Education Fellowship:—'Two hundred members of Danish, Finnish, Norwegian and Swedish Sections gathered at First Scandinavian Conference send their best wishes. Happy over successful work since first International Conference ten years ago.'

Transvaal School Journeys Association

Twenty-five South African Schoolboys visit the Old Country. The T.S.J.A. was started twelve years ago, and has organized a large number of camping holidays for boys and girls from the Transvaal schools. In 1928 the first Overseas tour was organized and sixty boys and girls were given an opportunity of visiting Great Britain. Since then two similar tours have been organized from Rhodesia. This year's party, accompanied by Mr. W. B. Dale, Headmaster of the Langlaagte Primary School, Johannesburg, includes boys from 12 to 16 years of age, both English- and Afrikaans-speaking. They are drawn from both primary and secondary schools in the Transvaal. The

parents pay £60 for each boy; £30 of this is for passage money, £5 for train fares in Transvaal to port of embarkation, £25 for the 39 days in Great Britain.

The International Congress on Childhood

The French association of teachers in nursery schools (*écoles maternelles*) and infants' classes was responsible for the International Congress that met in Paris at the end of July, at which there was an attendance of over 3,000.

Among the questions studied at the congress were:—(1) Co-operation between home and school. (2) Cost and importance of educational apparatus and school furniture. (3) Globalization applied to the nursery school, other than in reading. (4) The education of nursery school teachers. (5) The education of the artistic powers of the child. (6) Individual record of the health and mental development of the child.

An interesting exhibition and many visits to schools also formed part of the Congress. The encouraging evidence of progress achieved in the schools for little children was very stimulating to those who believe that education should be based on the needs of the child. At the closing banquet, M. Rosset, Director of Primary Education, emphasized the fact that other types of schools had much to learn from the work of the nursery schools.

The First International Conference on African Children

The reports showed the tremendous complexity of the problem. African children belong to different peoples and different tribes; they are guided by different customs and rites.

Still-birth and Infant Mortality—It was found a matter of urgency to secure a greater number of men and women doctors, trained in tropical medicine and hygiene.

Education—It was agreed that the education of the Africans must aim at their own development, with a view to the progress of their own race. In the field of education, three attitudes can be traced:—(a) the African is uneducable; he has to be *repressed*, and can be used only as a servant. (b) There are no essential differences between Blacks and Whites. The African can be *assimilated*. (c) The differences must be taken into account, but a *collaboration* of both races may be established. The African type must be kept and its true value brought forward. The aim of education is not to make Africans into second-rate Europeans, but into first-rate Africans.

As a practical result of the Conference, it was decided to establish in Geneva, under the auspices of the Save the Children International Union, a permanent centre of information and propaganda on African children.

A report of the conference will be issued in October by Save the Children Fund, 26 Gordon St. London, W.C.1.

Book Reviews

The New Senior School. By T. Payten Gunton, B.Sc., L.C.P. (Grant Educational Co. Ltd., London. 3s. 6d.)

The re-organization of the public elementary schools now in progress was bound to produce its own literature both in the way of official reports and memoranda as well as books from the publishing houses. Amongst the first of the latter type is Mr. Payten Gunton's *The New Senior School*, and it is quite clearly the production of a mind which has for some time been occupying itself with the subject discussed. Mr. Payten Gunton displays a most comprehensive grasp of the detail of the subject. He is obviously well informed of the main trends of modern educational thought. He applies the new psychology of mental differences to the appropriate organization of the senior school. He has regard for the recent school-parent movements and he discusses curricula to good effect.

It seems perhaps ungracious to raise points of criticism in so well-rounded off an effort, but pioneers must always suffer criticism, as indeed, if their work raises no criticism, it is stillborn. If anything, Mr. Payten Gunton is a little too facile in his solution of the vast problem of the senior school. He tends to display a mind rather more intent upon applepie order perhaps than upon the realities of the situation. His genius for organization is apt at times to run away with him. While he says on page 79 concerning below average children, 'They must be treated as nearly as possible like normal pupils . . . they should not be segregated from the ordinary pupils', and so on, yet on pages 80 and 81 he propounds a scheme for 'junior normal and junior sub-normal schools' as well as 'senior normal and senior sub-normal schools'. Administratively, such a scheme would be almost unworkable. To those of us who have had experience of the actual re-organization of schools into plain junior and non-selective senior, such a suggestion is open to grave suspicion as to its practicability. There are parental objections to a plain scheme—what would there be to a scheme where one child from one house goes to the 'normal' school and one from next door has to trudge half a mile farther to go to a 'sub-normal' school? Surely the obvious remedy is to make your re-organized schools large enough for double or triple classes or at any rate special classes for retarded children. It is only certifiable children who can with any success be grouped into special schools as far as mental conditions are concerned. I will not dwell upon the staffing difficulties inherent in the scheme suggested.

In the matter of classification within the senior school, Mr. Payten Gunton again, I think, allows his genius for organization to tempt him to suggest what he himself warns us is 'at best but a generalization'. He visualizes a senior school classified into 'academic, mechanical, clerical (or routine) and æsthetic types'—at least after the age of twelve or thirteen. I doubt if there are such 'types'. There may be such *interests*,

though some of them would overlap or be composite in character. Even if such 'types' actually existed in point of fact, does it follow that their numbers in the school would conveniently fit the organization plan? Comparatively simple plans of organization break down often in face of the actual distribution of ages, intelligences and interests in a particular school. It would seem that a classification based on age and I.Q. on general lines would give the best practical results so long as the school permits the full development as it arises of any particular bent or interest in the child. Intelligence is more generalized than specific, it is the interest aroused naturally or through the needs or environment of the individual which determines its most successful application.

It seems to me that in discussing 'curriculum' and 'subjects' Mr. Payten Gunton has missed the opportunity of applying fully what he describes in a previous chapter as 'purpose-ive work'. I believe that the main change in method which the senior schools will ultimately achieve will be to use the project as the centre of most of the school work in the 'subjects', not the working at set syllabuses and 'pieces' of work as tasks to be performed or a routine to be followed, but the using of projects of intense personal and local interest around which to weave the teaching. Not, 'Now we are going to have a lesson on Interest', but the actual introduction of the *need* of understanding Interest in a project in arithmetic. Not a logical following out of a science syllabus on the formal plan, but the psychological approach through the existing interests of the child. This will call for a new skill in teaching, but it will make the schools places where children learn rather than where children are taught. The differences between these two attitudes of a school are fundamental.

I do not say that Mr. Payten Gunton does not realize this point of view to some extent—he does—but I do not think he has emphasized it as much as it ought to be emphasized in the senior school. We would have liked from a teacher more about teaching and less about organization.

At the same time, Mr. Payten Gunton has done teachers and administrators of all kinds a service in publishing his book. It is obviously one of a class where many more will follow. The book should be in the library of every teacher.

Frederic Evans

Health and Education in the Nursery. By Victoria E. M. Bennett and Susan Isaacs, M.A. (Routledge, London. 6s.)

The authors of this book, each a specialist in her own field, have brought together in very simple and readable form some of the most important information that parents and nurses should possess about the physical care and the intellectual, social and emotional development of the nursery child.

Too often the physical care and the psychological and social needs of children are not considered to be

of equal importance, and this book should be very helpful in showing parents and nurses some of the likely psychological causes of such behaviour as biting, thumbsucking, tantrums. It also should help to clear up some popular misconceptions about the so-called precocious child.

The first half of the book which is concerned with the physical care of the young child, has some helpful tables and information about the vitamin content of different foods that are needed for growth. The full information about the different grades of milk and the different dried and condensed milks now available is useful and practical. It would seem, however, that not sufficient emphasis is given to the advisability of supplementing the milk as early as three or four months with small portions of grated vegetables, prune pulp, and so on. If this is done at a much earlier age than nine months, there is no particular difficulty with weaning.

Mrs. Isaacs, well-known for her work at the Malt-ing House School and for her book on the *Intellectual Growth of Young Children*, has given in the second half of the book the results of some of the recent work which has been done by Gesell and others on the norms of development at these early ages, which should enable parents to compare the ability of their own child with that of groups of children of the same age.

In the final chapters on the Child and his Parents and on the Nursery School, Mrs. Isaacs brings out the facts of the importance of family relationships on the child's development and the fact that the Nursery School can fill a need for all children regardless of social status. The poor little rich child needs it in many ways even more for his mental and emotional health than the child whose playground is the busy street.

These needs are very well understood in America, where the Nursery School has become a centre of enlightenment and education for parents and for students who are about to be parents.

All parents would gain much from this book, if it helped to make them aware of how abysmal their ignorance may sometimes be, and of the bad effect it may have on their children's behaviour.

Winifred Harley

The Social and Emotional Development of the Pre-School Child. By Katharine M. Banham Bridges. Kegan, Paul, London. 12s 6d.

Any book that deals with the social and emotional reactions of little children must be welcome to teachers and psychologists alike, as we have so few records of observations along these lines.

The experiments and records of behaviour scales in this book have been made by the Assistant Psychologist of the McGill University with the McGill University Nursery School for her field of observation.

Before we can really arrive at a true conception of the normal emotional development of a child, we will need similar records made over a wide area. It is difficult, too, in making scales to eliminate the personal bias of the varying personalities marking the scale. How can two people, for instance, be sure of arriving at the same conclusion as to whether a child telling an adult the events of his day is friendly and social or merely self-centred, and if a child climbs on one's lap, who will know if it is to have a credit mark for being affectionate, or a debit one for being dependent.

To the intuitional mind that reaches swift conclusions, much in the book will seem needless and obvious, but the more logical scientific mind will welcome these carefully recorded steps that have led to the conclusions reached.

The book is divided into four parts. Part one gives the approach to the problem, and an account of the making of the social and emotional scales. Part two deals with the social development scale and gives a detailed account of the behaviour of the Nursery School children in their social relationships. Part three gives a similar account of their emotional development and in the last section we get studies of individual children, conclusions and the application of the scales to the McGill Nursery School children.

The book is illustrated with charming photographs of children at their daily activities.

C. M. Styer

A Report of the British Commonwealth Education Conference (Bedford College)

will be issued early in October

Particulars will be announced later, or can be had on application to

THE SECRETARY, B.C.E.C., 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

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¶ Posts Vacant & Required

ADMINISTRATIVE COUNTY OF LONDON.

The London County Council has vacancies at the undermentioned new nursery schools. Preference will be given to candidates who have had experience in, or who have been trained for, nursery school work. Staff are allowed dinner and tea when on duty. The school hours are from 8.30 a.m. to 4.0 p.m., holidays as for ordinary elementary schools. The successful candidate will be required to relinquish her appointment after five years' service unless she is appointed from the Council's permanent service, when the appointment will be subject to review at the end of this period. ¶ Application form obtainable (stamped addressed foolscap envelope necessary) from the Education Officer (S.S.5), County Hall, Westminster Bridge, S.E.1, to whom it should be returned. Married women ineligible, except in special circumstances. Appointment subject to result of medical examination. Canvassing disqualifies.

GREENWICH — Rachel McMillan — Nursery Assistant. Salary in accordance with Burnham Scale IV for uncertificated teachers (subject to review March, 1932). The assistant appointed will not be recognized by the Board of Education for the purposes of superannuation, and she will not be allowed or required to contribute to the Council's Superannuation and Provident Fund.

MILE END — Old Church Road — Certificated assistant teacher (mistress). Qualifications in music desirable. Salary, Burnham Scale IV. (Subject to review, March, 1932).

Applications should be returned by 19th September. Montagu H. Cox, Clerk of the London County Council.

MONTESSORI TEACHER (diploma), age 25, seeks engagement. Can teach French and music also, Kollerstrom, Tekel's Park, Camberley.

NURSERY SCHOOL DIRECTRESS, also four years experience in University Child Study Dept., college trained, Montessori diploma, special interest in difficult children, desires post. — *Apply*, Box 302.

¶ Miscellaneous

MARIA GREY TRAINING COLLEGE, SALUS-BURY ROAD, LONDON, N.W.6. Recognized by the Board of Education and University of London. Preparation for London Teachers' Diploma, Cambridge Teachers' Certificate, Higher Certificate and Diploma of the National Froebel Union; students eligible for Board of Education grants. Intending students are asked to make application before the March preceding the September in which they propose to enter in order that arrangements may be made for practical work. For further particulars as to Halls of Residence, etc., *apply*, Principal, Miss Katharine L. Johnston, M.A.

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FINE ART — SLADE DIPLOMA — LADY. Teaches drawing, painting, History of Art, etc., in new Chelsea studios, and takes keen students round London galleries. *Apply*, Box 301.

PRELIMINARY NOTICE. Lectures on Nursery School Methods and Educational Handwork will be given during the autumn by Miss N. Lardner. Address enquiries to 44 Nelson Square, Blackfriars Road, S.E.1.

PARENTS wishing to start small progressive school, individual teaching, children 5-11, want teacher willing to start next term with four children 6-9. Terms at interview, *Apply*, Mrs. Maude, The Copse, Oxted, Surrey

FOR PARENTS, TEACHERS and others. September and October. Short course of modern psychology and excellent accommodation in beautiful old Château. Superb scenery. Sea and university town of Montpellier within easy reach by own private car. Terms reasonable. *Apply*, Secretary, Children's Centre, Château d'Assas, Hérault, France.

FRIENDS' SCHOOL, Saffron Walden, Essex. Saffron Walden offers attractions to parents able to settle there and enter their children as Day Scholars in the Junior School. Junior School: 7 to 10 years; Senior School: 10 to 18 years. Inclusive fees per annum: Boarders £99, Day Scholars £30. For prospectus and 'Aims and Objects' *apply* to the Head Master.

THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

Is Education the Keynote of Social Change?

Modern educators are divisible into two groups: those who hold that a better social order can be built up only by more fully and freely developed individuals, and those who hold that individual development must be strictly ordered by the needs of the state. The way of the second group is clear and uncompromising; it is the way of modern Italy and of Soviet Russia, which teach Fascism and Communism in their respective schools. The way of the former is razor-edged, and to follow it balance and wisdom are necessary. Those who advocate the fullest possible individual development are aware that rampant individualism can lead only to anarchy.

We believe that children should grow up in a freer air, unvitiated by old prejudices and fears, untrammelled by old bonds of morality and conduct. Yet the well-known experiment of the Hamburg Schools had to be modified because it was found that children brought up in such freedom were unable to adjust themselves to present-day society. This may be in part an indict-

ment of society. Yet so important to the full and harmonious development of the individual is a proper social adjustment, that your superman who cannot associate himself with the herd is likely to be both a disagreeable person and an unhappy and anti-social being. Therefore we must not only provide a right environment, giving freedom to the individual so that the new generation may play its full part in the drama of evolution. We must also insist that education provide ample and constant opportunities for training in social adjustment.

Much the same problem arises with regard to national development. Does nationalism and a proper national pride preclude an international outlook? Can the latter really be built only upon a denial of one's own nation or a vague cosmopolitanism? Or cannot a nation make the fullest contribution to the common good, and compromise most readily and without loss of prestige, if it has confidence and self-knowledge?

Another question: Must social change come first and educational changes follow? Or should we aim at bringing about a new



Environs de Nice

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*Environs de Nice*

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social order through education? Does our whole educational machinery require drastic overhauling in view of the swiftly changing civilization in which we live? If so, what can we jettison from our overloaded curriculum without imperilling all culture, or losing the heritage of the past? This will be a recurrent problem if education is to keep pace with the needs of modern life and the requirements of modern psychology.

Such questions as these have led the New Education Fellowship to choose for the theme of its Sixth World Conference: EDUCATION AND CHANGING SOCIETY.

Theme and Programme Nice has been chosen as the most suitable centre for the Conference, and its date has been fixed for 29th July to 12th August, 1932.

The programme will consist of a number of main lectures which will deal with two general problems: How to adapt education to meet the requirements of modern society; How education and the school can further social betterment. There will also be lectures on progress within the several national systems. Courses on new methods and on modern psychology will still constitute one of the most important sections of the Conference. The Commissions of the Fellowship will also hold private meetings and during the second week will report their conclusions. The Conference will be divided into five sections, in which there will be lectures, short papers and discussions.

I. The first section will deal with education and the social factor and will discuss (a) the apparently conflicting demands of vocational training and general culture; (b) the problems of

particular groups and classes, such as rural and town schools, higher education (including university) and the education of women.

II. The second section will deal with the family—its social functions and its relation to the school.

III. The third section is to be concerned with the problem of education for leisure and will deal with such questions as adult education, the youth movement, the education of the unemployed, etc.

IV. The fourth section is to be devoted to the thorny problem of the training of teachers.

V. The fifth and last section is to be devoted to a discussion of international co-operation, including the difficulties of inter-racial understanding and the bilingual problem.

Among the Lecturers The President of the Conference will be Professor Paul Langevin of the Collège de France, who, a great internationalist and a great physicist, is also one of the great figures of the French intellectual world. Dr. C. H. Becker, formerly Minister of Education for Prussia, and Professor Sir Percy Nunn, of the University of London, have both agreed to be Vice-Presidents.

China has recently applied to the League of Nations for expert advice concerning the inauguration of a practical system of national education. Four experts have been appointed by the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to fulfil this mission—Dr. Becker, Professor Langevin, M. Falski of Poland, and Mr. R. H. Tawney of the W.E.A., who has promised to try to secure for Nice two representative delegates from China. It is interesting that three of these educationalists are directly connected with the Fellowship.

The formation of a Japanese section of the Fellowship makes us hope for a most interesting contribution from Japan, and negotiations for a representative Russian delegation are already in hand. Dr. Ferrière's trip to South America has led to invitations being sent to many South American speakers. Among the speakers will be the following: André Siegfried, Jean Piaget, Ovide Decroly, Harold Rugg, John Dewey, George Kerschensteiner, Aloys Fischer, William Boyd, W. Schohaus, H. Piéron.

Nice as a Holiday Centre Nice could hardly be bettered as a holiday centre, for both children and grown-ups. And since parents, teachers and social workers are all actively engaged in education, we hope that many of them will find a meeting-place there. For those who have no time to spare, it can be reached directly from Paris. For those who have more leisure there could be delightful wondering through Auvergne and Provence. For yet others there is the sea route to Marseilles and a beautiful eight-hours' drive in a P.L.M. autobus along the Corniche. Those who have holiday time when the Conference is over will find the Alps, Italy or Corsica readily accessible. Nice is plentifully supplied with comfortable modern hotels, with charges to suit all purses—an important point in these days of rigorous economy. The price of board and lodging ranges from 5s. (\$1.25) to 14s. (\$3.50) per day.

With its blue sea, the Maritime Alps rising behind, the sunshine and the wooded hills covered with pine, olive, eucalyptus and palm, Nice is an ideal contrast to grey skies and northern cold. It is situated on the Bay of

Angels, at the mouth of the Var, and is not shut in by the mountains, so that it is cooler than some parts of the Riviera.

Nice or Nixa—Victory—has known many conquerors, Phœnicians, Romans, Saracens. It was for long a shuttlecock between the opposing forces of the dukes of Provence and the dukes of Savoy. There are many historical remains in the neighbourhood, and also little villages perched on the rocks like eagles' nests, hewn partly from the rock itself. These date from the tenth to the thirteenth centuries, and bear Roman and Saracen traces.

The Mayor and other officials of the town, the Prefet of the Alpes Maritimes and the education authorities of the district, all extend a welcome to the Fellowship.

School-Visiting Tours One of the chief aims of the N.E.F. is to enable educators all over the world to pool their difficulties and share their solutions, and we hope that the 1932 Conference will afford new opportunities for such collaboration. All those who can be free in June or the early part of July are urged to see as much as possible of the workings of the new education in various countries. They will have free access to schools embodying every type of educational experiment in France, Germany, Belgium, Switzerland and Great Britain.

The foremost question of to-day concerns education. What sort of society are we creating, could we create, and do we wish to create? At Nice we shall hear answers to these questions given by some of the most brilliant of the educational leaders of the modern world.



Environs de Nice

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A Society of Nations

An Interview with Lt.-General the Rt. Hon. J. C. Smuts

WE drove out fifteen miles from Pretoria to General Smuts's farm, Doornkloof, at Irene. The homestead stands in the midst of the veldt, on to which one steps from the front door, and the eye is greeted by the wide and open views so dear to the heart of every South African. The dwelling-house, which is of the simple farm type, was used as a British officers' club during the Boer War. It is a curious coincidence that the farm should be situated at Irene, a name derived from the Greek word for peace.

Wearing the khaki drill suit which is the ordinary dress of most South African farmers, General Smuts received us informally in his large library, the walls of which are lined with books. The room, like the rest of the house, is Spartan in its simplicity; in place of the usual desk, General Smuts works at a long narrow table. Farmer, soldier, statesman, scientist, philosopher, internationalist—few men have crowded so many and varied interests into sixty-one years of life. And no man, probably, has worked harder for international understanding, established on a firm basis of internationally-minded youth. His championship of these principles is the outcome of personal experiences. He pointed to the flags draping the walls of his home and to the cannon in front of the house, and his face lighted up with a smile. 'You have come to ask me how to develop an international outlook in the youth of the nations, and you find me surrounded by relics of war!'

We must live in the world of reality, General Smuts affirmed. There have been injustices, it is true; great nations and empires have been built up at the sacrifice of the weaker. But the present is the outcome of the past, and the League of Nations, itself an aggregate of units, has resulted from and is the fulfilment of isolated incidents in the past. Just as the present is the outcome of the past, so will the future be the outcome of this our present. In our hands lies the shaping of the future.

The world is passing through a period of tragedy and suffering which is likely to be protracted. The swift progress of events blinds us to the fact that our generation is witnessing the passing away of one age and the setting in of another; the suffering the world is now enduring is the pangs of dissolution and of birth. Man is being forced to find new ways of living in order to adjust himself to present-day conditions of life, and to the situation in which the whole world now finds itself. Some countries have believed themselves secure from this suffering, and sought to maintain their security by holding aloof from the rest, and by enclosing themselves within high tariff walls and amassing gold. But they have found that they, too, are integral parts of the structure of human society, and that neither tariff walls nor gold are a protection from modern conditions.

The sense of being a member of one special nation is deep rooted, and a thing to be fostered, but not on the narrow lines of exclusion. We must widen our citizenship so that it embraces not only a nation but also the world. We must go forward from national unity to that greater unity of the whole human race envisaged by Christ, who saw us all as sons of God.

Unless we can help fundamentally to change present human attitudes to national and international social problems, the future may see the downfall of our civilization. A new mental outlook is needed—an outlook that can be gained only by means of education. Little can be done to change the outlook of adults, the orientation of whose minds has been fixed in childhood. We must concentrate on the children and seek to instil into them a more liberal knowledge and sympathetic understanding of peoples and nations other than their own.

Many teachers to-day admit this tacitly as an ideal. Such men as Sir Gilbert Murray and Dr. Maxwell Garnett have done a great deal to further this trend in education. But our civilization can save itself only through a return to practising Christianity, through a reawakening

General Smuts
and his little
Grand-
daughter



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Times']

of that spirit which has too long lain dormant. Much of the teaching of international matters lacks this informing spirit, lacks indeed any vital emotional factor that will make it a guide and incentive to right conduct. Often it is so uninspired as to seem to hold little more solution of the problems of to-day than do the Siege of Troy or the Battle of Hastings.

General Smuts deplored the fact that most histories are written in such a way as to inflame national pride, glorify the heroes of battle and stimulate a sense of separateness. He urged that in order to see war in its true perspective, children must learn more of the history of the common people, more about the development of art and science in various countries and about the great men and women who have contributed to the world's cultural heritage. They must learn to understand the evolutionary process in man's thought and feeling, which has culminated in the League of Nations.

Though the birth of the League has indeed ushered in a new era for mankind, its temper is not universally accepted and can come so to be only through education. In this the nations must co-operate, and must take full advantage

of every common meeting-ground. It has not been sufficiently realized that sport and games are a good approach to a more co-operative viewpoint. In Ancient Greece, when the elders of the divided cities argued, quarrelled and warred with each other, the youth of these cities held their Olympic games and there resolved their differences. And although modern Olympic games have proved to be anything but peaceful gatherings, yet we shall learn by experience, and the very difficulties which have arisen may serve as means of growth in this new outlook. We cannot expect to reverse in a day modes of thinking that have prevailed for generations. But the sports grounds are at least meeting places, and, as education evokes a more international outlook, they may cease to be miniature battlefields.

All societies formed by pupils in schools and universities should be encouraged if they aim at the exchange of ideas with the youth of other lands. Such societies may be short-lived, but they are useful in that they provide *practice* in co-operation. For we cannot learn by theorizing, but only by doing, and our great need to-day is for men and women of character who

are attuned to the spirit of the new age. It is important therefore that the new education should be so organized as to afford children every opportunity to cultivate, in practice, an understanding of other nations, and so establish a new outlook. In the establishment of this outlook co-operation and self-discipline are corner-stones. Discipline, though not the discipline of the rod, must be maintained. It cannot be abandoned, for it is an essential factor in the life both of an individual and of a nation. Youth to-day rebels at older forms of discipline, and at many outworn conventions and old traditions. Self-discipline is not only better, but also more truly efficacious than that imposed from without, or enforced by means of corporal punishment and other primitive measures.

General Smuts claimed that there must be more freedom for individuals and for national groups, but this must be a freedom allied to adjusted and self-disciplined personalities and nationalities.

Parents as well as teachers have an important part to play in the breaking down of the harmful mental and emotional barriers which still exist, for before a child can learn to adapt itself to the larger group, he must realize the meaning of the smaller group, the family, and must learn the first lessons of co-operation in it.

Modern psychology stresses the 'wholeness' of integrated personality, but there is also the 'wholeness' of an integrated nation, without which we cannot expect to get an integrated world. Only when an individual or a nation is

secure and is not suffering from any sense of inferiority, can true self-determined co-operation be obtained. The spirit of the League of Nations must inform the whole of individual and national life if the League is to succeed in that difficult rôle, a society of nations.

General Smuts evidently regards the state of modern civilization very gravely, yet without undue foreboding. Unless something radical is done, our number is up. Yet the remedy is almost absurdly simple. Children are not burdened with race hostilities, nor with that sense of traditional enmity that sometimes makes friendly co-operation between the adults of the nations a difficult and half-hearted process. The older generation remembers old rivalries and old wars, and the man in the street in every nation finds it difficult to cast aside mistrust and reserve in his dealings with others. But the children, if left alone, find spontaneous interest in other nations. History and geography, properly presented, are absorbing studies, and modern languages gain a breath of life through the exchange of letters and of holiday visits with the children of other lands. The exchange of teachers is already a valuable medium for better understanding, and it is to be hoped that this practice will become more widespread.

Children are born world citizens, and if they can be left un-drilled in a narrow nationalism, and helped judiciously in their efforts to get to know each other, they will establish for themselves, quite naturally, a co-operative world state.

A Report of the British Commonwealth Education Conference (Bedford College)

will be issued early in October

3/6

Particulars will be announced later, or can be had on application to

THE SECRETARY, B.C.E.C., 11 Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1

Whither Education?

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SINCE, for the first time in history, education to-day gives promise of becoming universal, and since it has the potentialities of reshaping human destiny, the leaders of educational thought in different countries are among those whose efforts, if well co-ordinated, may do much toward helping mankind to use its power for its own growth and development rather than for its destruction. Are the leaders of educational thinking in different parts of the world conscious of their own goals? What are their goals? Are they antagonistic, complementary and harmonious, or identical? In an attempt to get at least a partial answer to these questions, I have sought out the leaders of educational thought in a number of countries of the Far and Near East and Europe, and plied them with questions.

My first question was: 'Do you want to perpetuate and perfect your present type of society; or do you want to create a new, definitely preconceived, social, political and economic organization; or do you wish rather to develop each individual fully without any attempt to predetermine social structure?'

Japan, it seems, is focussing its educational efforts almost exclusively upon the first alternative—the perpetuation and perfection of its present social structure. The emperor is sacrosanct. The Japanese nation is to be conceived of as one great family with a national religion—Shinto—tolerant enough to include within its fold the followers of any other religions. Even Japan, however, recognizes that there must be the development of individual abilities if the emperor's future subjects are to contribute their best services to the empire.

The Communists of Russia are striving toward the second alternative—the inception and organization of a new society, very definitely planned as to its political and economic structure. Russia is the only country in the world which has completely reorganized its educational system and brought educational science into full play in the effort to achieve its goal.

In China, while there is a desire to create a new society, some leaders feel the necessity for rooting it deep in their ancient culture, others' eyes are focussed on the necessity of westernization, while still others believe their general aim can be best achieved by centring attention on individual development. China wishes to educate her children toward a society built on the broad general principles laid down by Sun Yat Sen.

Poland, too, has only a general outline of the new society she wishes to create. This is also true of the Arab countries.

One finds the third alternative—that of free individual development without any attempt to predetermine social forms—as the aim of occasional leaders in almost all countries. The two most renowned examples are Gandhi in India and Einstein in Germany. Such men advocate concentrating all educational efforts on the development of character, clear thinking, and a sense of social responsibility.

My second question was: 'When there is a conflict between the demands of the state and the profound personal convictions of the individual, would you so educate your children that they will follow their conscience or that they will follow the nation's demands?'

Again Japan and Russia are unequivocal in their answers: the state comes first. The highest duty of the individual is to give himself to his country or his collective. There is no moral law higher than loyalty to the emperor in Japan, or, in Russia, whole-hearted acquiescence in the decision of the collective.

Countries struggling toward national unity and independence have a tendency in this same general direction. The most ardent of the nationalists in Nanking and even occasionally in India, most of the leaders in Turkey and Poland, and practically all the Arab leaders, feel that individualism has been rampant in their countries and that their national existence depends upon the subordination of the individual to the state. But some of the Chinese,

such as the philosopher, Hu Shih, believe that where a person's conscientious convictions conflict with the state's demands, he must follow the dictates of his heart. This belief is shared by many of the Indian nationalists, including Jawarhalal Nehru, and, of course, Gandhi himself; and by a few German thinkers, notably Einstein. But as Nehru, for one, pointed out, the conscientious convictions must not be a cloak for cowardice or personal convenience, but real convictions for which one is willing, if need be, to suffer.

There was an attempt by some of those whom I questioned to avoid the issue by maintaining that the individual's conscience should be nationalized to the point that he could not have conscientious convictions against what the state demands. This point of view contravenes the fundamental idea of conscience.

The third question was: 'Should we educate our children to place the welfare of their own country first, or if necessary to sacrifice their country's apparent advantage for the welfare of the world community of nations?'

Gandhi and Einstein say that the world community must come first. A few other leaders share this feeling, but it is not common. Nations which have been oppressed by other powers, with the exception of India, usually say that their national welfare must take precedence. The Arabs are very positive on this point. 'We must build up a strong Arab consciousness if we are to throw off the foreign yoke', they say. 'The doctrine of internationalism is all very well for powerful sovereign states', say some of the Chinese, 'but for a weak state which is struggling against the aggression of other countries, it is nonsense to talk about it.' Japan talks a great deal of internationalism, but concedes no possible conflict between it and nationalism.

In Russia the question was very differently answered. 'If by the world community of nations you mean the proletariat of the world, of course it comes first. We are not primarily interested in Russian revolution but in world revolution. We do not teach national patriotism as such, except in the sense of defending the revolution from attack by capitalistic forces. But the welfare of the workers of all the world is our fundamental aim.' While all the nations advocate peace and the peaceful solution of

international problems whenever possible, the only nation which, as a consistent educational policy, would place the world's good first, is the one which would try to bring about its particular conception of the world's good through the bitterest of all forms of warfare—revolution.

What are the various countries trying to do with their history teaching? Is their history to be nationalistic and 'with a tendency' or is it to be as nearly objective as possible? Leaders of educational thought are at variance among themselves in their answers. I think, however, that one can almost draw a line between the groups on the basis of their general profundity of thought. Those whose thinking has a broad foundation and reaches upward towards the highest ideals, regardless of their nationality, want the maximum possible of objectivity in textbooks and classroom lessons. 'Truth is the main aim of education', they say. 'Let us not distort it to serve present and local ends.'

Others echo this sentiment, but modify it when pressed for details. 'It depends on the age of the child', they say. 'Early childhood is a period of hero worship. Let us not spoil it by too accurate a picture of the shortcomings of our heroes.' Or, more frequently, they deny the possibility of objective history. 'We have to place emphasis on one thing or another. This selection and emphasis will naturally be determined by the subjective attitude of the writer. Therefore the question is meaningless.'

Most of those who have this latter viewpoint concede, however, that there is considerable difference between history teaching which *attempts* to be objective and history teaching which is avowedly organized for influencing the children toward a particular point of view. And the great majority favour the attempt toward objectivity. As usual, Russia is the most clearly conscious of her aim, and the frankest. History as such is not taught in Russian schools below the university level, and when it is taught it has only one interpretation—the Marxian, and one tendency—toward world revolution and communism.

My next question was: 'Should children in the schools be allowed to discuss any question, however contentious? If so, should the teacher try to lead them toward a particular point of

view? Toward what point of view: his personal one or the official one of the state?

The more conservative attitude was that the school was a place of instruction rather than of irresponsible discussion. The children are there to learn what the teacher has to teach. And the teacher is there to give the point of view of the state. This extreme view, however, was comparatively rare, except in Japan. A more common point of view was that there should be some freedom of discussion, but that its degree should depend upon the age of the students, or upon the subject matter to be discussed. Practically everyone concedes that children should not discuss questions for which they have no factual basis of understanding. Some feel, however, that the lack of this basis is ground for forbidding the discussion, while others feel that the desire for discussion calls for immediate instruction as to the necessary facts.

Educational leaders have very different ideas as to what children can understand and as to the age at which various questions are suitable. These differences of opinion should, of course, be resolved not by philosophical or even psychological reasoning, but by scientific experimentation. From the standpoint of the ends of education we are merely concerned with whether or not we want children to discuss freely all questions which they are capable of discussing. This brings us to the limitations inherent within the subject matter children are to discuss.

Those who feel that there should be such limitations would prevent discussion involving the fundamental organization of the state, real or proposed. One finds this point of view among leaders in such countries as Russia, Poland, Turkey and China. If, as in Russia, Communism is to be the new order, the advantages of a return to private ownership of factories and land may not be discussed by the students. With Italian educators I feel sure that a free discussion of the harmfulness of a dictatorship would be forbidden.

There are a few bold thinkers in almost every country (I am not sure about Japan) who would allow children to thrash out in class even the most basic matters. 'If they are to become really thoughtful citizens, they must learn from the beginning to think open-mindedly and scientifically on fundamental questions. If we

forbid discussion in school, we encourage clandestine discussion outside. Such discussion is unsupervised; the children are likely to be misled by irresponsible agitators.'

That the teacher should guide and direct discussion is universally agreed. Those who want the children to develop the maximum amount of individual freedom of thought would limit the teacher's part to the correction of errors in facts and logic. Others, however, would have the teacher try to lead the children through their discussion toward a particular point of view. It is discussion 'with a tendency'.

But toward what point of view, the teacher's or the state's? Here again there is division of opinion. 'The teacher has the same right to individual freedom of opinion as have the children', declare the individualists. The nationalists take the stand that, in a state school system, the teacher is a servant of the state and must represent the state's point of view. This is vehemently opposed by other leaders. 'The teacher is no mere tool in the hands of the political party that happens to be in power, but is a servant of humanity.'

My next question was: 'Should the programme of the school be organized primarily in terms of a scientific study of the demands of adult society or should it centre principally round the interest and activities of the developing child?'

One of our best-known American educators, Dr. W. H. Kilpatrick, takes the stand that we must educate for a changing civilization. He says that we do not know what the future holds in store for our children. We must train them to meet continually changing conditions. We cannot do this by giving them predigested facts, by cramming them with information and drilling them in skills, determined by a social order passing if not already passed. Let us rather give them an education of activity in which new problems are continually occurring, that they may have practice in meeting problems.

One finds a number of educators, particularly in Japan, China and Turkey, who have been influenced by Kilpatrick's ideas or similar ones of Dewey; but comparatively few of them in either the Orient or the Occident are willing to go all the way with him. This, of course, is true in America as well. Most of those who were

sympathetic with the idea of child-centred education considered it in the light of a psychological means of giving the child the knowledge and skill which adults feel he should attain. Very few indeed show a willingness to leave the end products of education to what seem to be the hazards of the child's interests. They feel that in deciding what things are ultimately necessary, the science of education should be called in.

The final question was: 'Is it a legitimate and important function of education to approach the emotional life of a child, to attempt to help him resolve those inner conflicts which in their extreme forms eventuate in neuroses and psychoses, and which even in their more common forms result in unhappiness and maladjustment to life?'

In many parts of the world I found this subject to be one of which the leading educators had either never heard or to which they had never given serious thought. Some of them, once they understood what I was talking about, were very favourable to the idea. Others thought that while it was ultimately desirable, there were too many immediately pressing problems to justify present attention to this field. As one Arab leader said: 'That belongs in the field of educational luxuries and we must first teach our people how to work and how to read and write.'

It was not until I reached Turkey, coming from the East, that I found any beginnings of a consideration of this problem. In Russia it was receiving serious attention as part of the field of 'pedology'. There, consultation centres were being formed in various cities, where both parents and teachers could come for advice on the emotional and adjustment problems of children; and all teachers were given training in child adjustment.

Considerable attention to the problem exists in Germany. But the real centre for this work is in Austria. Aichhorn's work there with children and teachers and Dr. Alfred Adler's clinics in the public schools of Vienna, where teachers, children, and parents are given training in Individual Psychology, are well known.

After considering the detailed replies to my questions and the arguments given by different leaders, it seems to me that an attempt to fit the

individual into a preconceived social mould is to some extent necessary and desirable. But if the mould is too rigid, the attempt is dangerous. We must cultivate in our children such far-sightedness that they realize that their personal welfare is inextricably bound up with that of the larger group to which they belong, and that a seeming personal advantage at the expense of that group is an illusion. In the same way they must be made to realize that their nation's welfare depends upon that of the world, which in turn depends upon the welfare of its component nations or human groups. If history teaching must have a tendency, let it be the tendency toward world vision—not a world vision which ignores the special responsibilities and opportunities within one's own nation or other social group, but a vision which recognizes that nation as an organic part of the greater whole.

Freedom of discussion there should be. Let it be safeguarded only by the inculcation of a scientific spirit which involves the use of facts instead of prejudices as a basis for discussion.

In building a programme we again need great flexibility but must not have structurelessness. To fail to take into consideration the demands which society is inevitably going to make upon the child is to let him go out into the world inadequately prepared to do his part in its work. But if we can get rid of the cloisteral tendency of the traditional school and make education a part of life itself, it will be comparatively easy to make the child feel the need for such knowledge and skill as is necessary for participation in adult society.

One of the great lacks of our education today and one of the causes, therefore, of society's afflictions, is our failure to recognize the emotional conflicts in the individual child, conflicts between personal desires and social adjustments. To help children face and resolve these conflicts must become a vital part of the new education.

Can we not unite in an attempt to achieve an education which recognizes the importance to the individual of the fullest social co-operation, and the importance to the life and growth of society of free thinking, free acting, personally integrated individuals?

How We Have Become what We Are

DR. ALFRED ADLER

Founder of the School of Individual Psychology; author of 'The Practice and Theory of Individual Psychology', 'The Education of Children', 'Understanding Human Nature', etc. Founder and Director of the Children's Clinic in Vienna.

WE Individual Psychologists do not regard a human being as an isolated organism. We watch how, from the first day onwards, man develops a power of self-adaptation which is to help him overcome the difficulties of life and produce a masterpiece of his own creating, without teaching, yet with psychic aids. To us it is almost indubitable that that which we call the psychic life is a part of life itself, striving for perfection like every physical organism.

This striving for the attainment of the ideal form can be carried out only when some aim is constantly held in view, when there is a plan to which, in striving to reach his goal, the being must conform. This ideal becomes the life-style. It appears that in actual fact a plan exists and that every child, from the very outset, grows up within the range of this life-plan. It is true that here consciousness plays only a small part, as it does in the case of a child first groping its way to the mother's breast. By continual repetition a certain movement proves to be important to the child. This he clings to, approaching as it does to an effort to master the difficulties and demands of life.

The environment of any one child is, up to a point, more or less unchanging. The demands made on him as a suckling and a little later, do not vary much, so that when he is four or five years of age, there is a period of little change, at least as regards influences of the outside world. Much remains the same and is always responded to in much the same way, provided the individual has succeeded in adapting himself. In other words, a training has been going on, at first more closely allied to consciousness than later. We find ever the same movement-line; we find all the actions, whether springing from the conscious or the unconscious, always seeking to attain this one aim; trying different ways, but

removing the obstacles, solving the problems at hand.

I think I need not treat this question in detail; the fact is that the goal of superiority which we set up as an abstract ideal, by no means suffices for finding our way in the world of reality. This aim must assume some kind of concrete character. We may, of course, maintain that just on account of this

uniformity of the individual, to which he is impelled by nature and urged by his own experiences, we must find this same unity in his psychic processes. It is impossible for a person to be working for some aim and yet to have feelings which prevent this striving, unless this very prevention is part of his real aim, and corroborated in all his actions. We always find this element of striving in the movement which enables the individual to continue along his way. Individual Psychology altogether is a very difficult matter; every step has to be duly considered. We must bear in mind and understand, in the concepts and expressions which we use for psychic movements and everything concerning them, that thinking does not mean thinking in the ordinary sense alone, but that, in every thought, feelings and movements are present which again result in other currents influencing the actions, bearing and attitude of a person. We generally do not see all this because our gaze is fixed on one particular point of this entire and connected whole. It is perhaps not simple for the unskilled to detect the wonderful harmony, although no one doubts its existence.

In the very beginning, at the dawn of Individual Psychology, we strove to find comparisons to make clear that at which we had arrived. Thus, by way of illustration, we referred to the person who, knowing the composer Bach and familiar with some of his work, will recognize that master from a single bar or tune,

Dr. Adler maintains that:

1. *The first five years of life determine your basic character.*
2. *You are your own masterpiece; your style is as recognizable as that of Bach.*
3. *Through Individual Psychology you can recognize your basic pattern and consciously improve upon it.*

isolated from its setting. In other words, he has found the whole in the particle; he has penetrated into the wonderful uniformity of this master and therefore finds it easy to recognize him in every detail. In Individual Psychology too we must get so far. When we have grasped the whole personality, the life-style of a person, it will be possible, in some cases even absolutely essential, to recognize from details, this master and this masterpiece, the man himself.

I drew attention to the fact that four or five years suffice to make a life-style complete. I must now add that a person can recognize the flaw in the structure of his work only when he can see the fault in its whole setting. This cannot be if he limits himself to one particular part and lays siege to that. He will have to try to understand the connection between this one part, this symptom, and his whole life-style, to admit it to himself and to set it right. In psychological research, we must always try to comprehend the whole composition—to explore the person as an entity and realize his attitude towards life for himself.

People demand: How should a four-year-old have a right opinion about himself, his capabilities and his future attitude towards his fellow men? Yet this very opinion clings to him later and determines his perspective. The life-style of a child is to be interpreted and judged by the degree of activity which he has so far brought to bear upon his surroundings and by the degree of courage with which he confronts the outside world. But the most vital of all is the degree of readiness he has shown for co-operation, for this is the prominent link connecting the individual with life. We can easily see how difficult is the task which a child has before him, but our great and only hope is that our system of education will facilitate his finding the right path.

Given that there are influences of environment, we must broach the question: Have we the right to assume that a child will experience influences in the right way and answer to them rightly? Can he not receive impressions in a form over which we have no control? May he not possibly respond to these impressions in a way over which we have no control? Would education be necessary if we could count upon the child and his psychic processes working like an exact machine? Is not the child in a situation of

arbitrarily, erroneously receiving and transferring? This is actually the case and education is faced with the great task of not only trying to affect and influence, but also of observing when the right experiences come to the fore and when it is necessary to exert a corrective influence.

At this point other views interpose. Some aver that the psychic structure of later life is inborn; this we deny. Others, the milieu theorists, maintain that psychic development depends on the influences of environment. We in no wise negate these influences. Individual Psychology, growing out of pathology, also began by pointing out that a child coming into the world with inferior organs, experiences this inferiority and behaves accordingly. We see no possibility whatever of proving or assuming the presence of innate psychic qualities. In the very first days of life we can see that a child *establishes* social relationships and experiences which find outward expression, so that it is impossible to speak of inherent, psychic qualities.

From the description of the makings of a life-style, from the sureness with which we trace it, it follows that we can use every single detail in our task of reconstructing the life-plan. In the course of experiments we have found that there are certain viewpoints and facts of psychic life which to some degree facilitate the task. We have certainly not yet found any sure means of guidance, and it is not unlikely that we shall get other and better viewpoints than these.

What can we learn when an adult tells us about his earliest childhood remembrances? We can safely say that these happenings, chosen from a hundred others, particularly interest him. Whether this interest was called into remembrance at the moment of being asked, or whether it was so strong as to be continually in the forefront of his mind, must be decided in every individual case. There is no doubt that in response to the question: What is your oldest childhood memory? the interests of this person, of his life-style, are at once revealed. The objection that memory may prove treacherous has been raised against this method, and with some justification. For sometimes not the actual remembrances are told, but such as were gathered from the statements of others. Yet in cases like this we do know that a part of the life-style has come into our hands. Objections of this

kind are therefore futile. I can even imagine somebody, wishing to please, thinking out a childhood remembrance. This would likewise prove a part of the whole, and would have to be treated with the caution which should distinguish every Individual Psychologist in his reconstruction of the life-style. If I were asked the basic principle of Individual Psychology, I think I should say that it is the movement of all psychic processes from a station of inferiority to a station of superiority. To this basic principle all the other principles of other schools of psychology also conform.

Let us return to childhood memories. This idea of the oldest childhood memory is intended merely to supply us with a hint. We are, above all, interested in what the individual picks out for narration and in just why he thought of this particular remembrance. I shall certainly startle you when I maintain that psychology really begins not with counselling but with guessing. Thus we are scarcely to be surprised when the reproach is made that if our surmises about an oldest childhood remembrance are right, it is only because we happen to have guessed correctly. There is no other possibility. But we start from certain points of view, and would never regard anything we have guessed at as being the last word upon the matter, were we not able to prove it right in other ways too.

The supposition of the uniformity of individuality is, however, a great aid. From this we work when, having guessed rightly in one place, and found the life-style, we have to find the same life-style in another place. In order to be able to begin at all we have to try to detect in every oldest childhood remembrance the line leading from below to above. As we are eager students of child life, we have acquired much material in the way of childhood remembrances and are more or less familiar with the possibilities and boundaries of the child's psychic life. We feel at home here and find it easier to draw con-

clusions. We are exceedingly well equipped for understanding the spoilt child's faulty development. I think we have come so far as to be able to recognize the spoilt child from a single trait. We realize, however, that there are a million variations, and we must be prepared to find changes and differences.

I am conscious that in making these remarks I have fallen into the error of picking out a part as if it were of the greatest significance. I have had space to deal only with part of the whole. If I have succeeded in showing that the work is not easy, and that we must and can practise the ability of seeing things in their sum total, and really understanding and recognizing connections, I have done what I set out to do.

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Cook's Scholastic Service has grown to really dignified proportions. Using continuous and widespread press advertising as a stimulus to inquiries, this Department has attracted the attention of a great number of parents and guardians in all quarters of the world, the outlying parts of the Empire being especially well-represented. These parents, anxious for guidance in the matter of finding the right school for their charges, have been pleased to find at Cook's a service which is based on personal visits and interviews. A high percentage of these inquiries has resulted in pupils actually being placed in the school which, in the opinion of the Department, is best suited to their requirements.

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First Steps to Freedom



A Geography Class

This illustration comes from the Avery Coonley School, Downers Grove, Illinois. It is very usual in America to let a member of the group prepare a lesson on a specific point and give it to the rest of his class. Much may be said for the educational value of this practice: The child enjoys looking up the material; he gains in self-confidence and in the verbal expression of his thoughts; the rest of the class is always much interested. The teacher during such a lesson is generally entirely in the background. Note the informal arrangement of the classroom.

Parents! Understand your Child

MARIA B. TE WATER, M.A., M.B., Ch.B.

Lecturer in the University of Pretoria, South Africa

ON all sides there is an increasing interest in the child, his nature and his needs. Yet how prevalent still is the idea: the child we have with us always, why be so urgent in paying attention to his wants, while there are more pressing and important things to be done?

One wonders is there anything more important than the child who will be man or woman to-morrow? His physical health has for some time been a matter of public concern and the community has interested itself greatly in his education; but our attitude towards the child and his behaviour problems is in serious need of revision.

In the United States of America an effort is being made in the right direction and its most significant results have been the following:

- (1) Parent-teacher organizations, the main object of which is to bring parents and teachers into closer touch.
- (2) Parent classes, in which the understanding of the development and the training of the child is of primary importance, in order that parents may deal with children in such a way that problem situations can be prevented.
- (3) The Child Guidance Clinic, where parents may come for help and assistance in behaviour difficulties with their children.

Prevention of the development of behaviour problems is the logical aim, and this is only possible with children. It calls for full co-operation on behalf of all those interested in children: parents, teachers, medical men and women, social workers.

At the Child Guidance Clinic in which the writer was working, it was found that the attitude of eighty-five per cent of the parents or guardians towards the behaviour problem presented by a child was: When he gets older he will outgrow it. An attitude such as this showed that there was no understanding of the factors involved. Dr. Phyllis Blanchard says: 'The child's behaviour is the outgrowth of many

interacting forces. From the formation of his earliest habits of sleeping and eating these influences are at work. The things the child sees and hears, the approval and disapproval which he receives at home, at school and at play, the movies he attends, the stories he reads, all the myriad influences of his environment are at work upon him, moulding and unmoulding his behaviour patterns and deepening the neural pathways of response.'

If at any time the behaviour of the child is to be changed, all these factors must be taken into consideration. The child will have a certain type of experiences that will be accompanied by some emotion of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This emotion determines his attitude towards any particular object, situation, person or idea. This attitude is important because it predisposes him to act in a certain definite way. Tom, aged seven years, was sent to the Clinic by the principal of his school because of lying. His father said: 'Tom used to lie at home but I have thrashed it out of him; I don't know why he lies at school.' Tom was a small boy, under weight; he wore glasses, and was usually called 'Goggles' by his companions—a term he hated. He said: 'I don't lie to my dad because he beats me so.' 'Why do you get into trouble at school then?' 'Because I tell lies. I am afraid they will think I am a baby. The boys say I am a coward because I can't fight.' When Tom's difficulties were understood he was taught boxing and swimming among other things. His success at swimming ensured him several friends. The day he took off his glasses and put the bully of the playground on his back marked the beginning of the end of his troubles.

In children we so often lose sight of the fact that satisfactory habits of reaction must be gradually and carefully developed, that, unless we get to the root of the difficulty we are not likely to deal with it satisfactorily. Of a dozen children who steal, no two will be actuated by the same motive. The child who is under-nourished, one with temper tantrums, nervous-

ness or a poor school record—due to so-called laziness or inattention—or one who reacts antagonistically to discipline of any kind, is in need of a thorough examination. The child whose behaviour is a problem either to his parents or to his teachers will not necessarily become a community problem for stealing and lying, with a court record. The parents who took up the attitude that the child would outgrow his difficulties were not exceptions nor did they belong to any particular class. Some had incomes of £7,000 a year, others were so poor that they were supported by the community. Among them were university professors, lawyers, doctors, ministers and unskilled labourers.

The problems presented at the Child Guidance Clinic were equally varied. On the one hand there were children who had a long record of delinquencies such as stealing, truancy, running away from home, tempting other children; on the other hand mothers brought their two- or three-year-old children to be treated for thumb-sucking or temper tantrums. Many of the parents requested help only after the behaviour problem was becoming a serious matter, as they clung almost desperately to the idea that no one understands a child as well as his parents. And yet on careful investigation only two per cent of them had had a relationship with their own parents that had made for understanding.

Take, for instance, the baby who is addicted to thumb-sucking. This is his means for getting satisfaction in a difficult situation, whether it be that of losing his comfort or after correction. But he is gaining satisfaction in a way that will tend to make his future adaptations in life more difficult. He will grow into the child who would sooner go off and play by himself than try to fit in with his little companions; when grown to maturity he will tend to withdraw within himself rather than face unpleasant facts. This type of reaction tends to prevent him from attaining to that level of efficiency that one could perhaps have expected from his mental and physical equipment, and frequently it has resulted in that inadequate type of person who is a liability to his family and to the community.

In short, the problem child is the precursor of the problem adult. What is the problem child? In the last analysis, all children are problems in that they represent unknown pre-

dispositions and possibilities. Children with behaviour problems mean all those children whose behaviour is such that it interferes with their adjustment in the family, school or social group. We cannot understand any act of a child unless we know something of the motivation that lies behind it. A desire to please is not a bad motive, but if it leads to stealing of money in order that sweets may be purchased for friends, we are dealing with a situation that certainly has undesirable aspects. The motive is not at fault, but the method used to carry it out is.

Dr. Emery, of the Los Angeles Child Guidance Clinic, states: 'There is a growing tendency to recognize the child as an individual who has individual thoughts, feelings, ideas, worries, troubles. We are beginning to realize that such things play just as large a part in the child's mental life as they do in the mental life of the parents. Not only has the child a rich and varied mental life in the present, but he has his own individual experiences in the past and has his own individual future to live. We cannot understand his present thoughts and feelings unless we know what values he has learned to attach to them.'

The causes of behaviour problems are generally multiple. There are many factors operative in bringing about a particular situation; factors so complex and interrelated that the understanding and correct evaluation of them is extremely difficult. The following is an instance: Allen was becoming the bully of the playground and the hero of the junior school, but he failed his classes three times. His brother, Dick, two years younger, would soon be in the same class. The mother was always praising Dick. Although she and her husband were both university graduates it took her three months to grasp the fact that Allen was below the average intelligence and that he was finding complete satisfaction in his physical development and accomplishment. After he was placed in a different school where he could manage the work and Dick was no longer held up to him as a model, his whole attitude changed.

Dr. Groves (Professor of Child Psychology, Boston University) has pointed out the tremendous importance of the past when he says: 'Although we try, we cannot free ourselves from these earlier experiences. We always look at

life through our childhood and therefore we see life differently from those who come into it later and see it just as it is. If this be true we have to-day in our country two civilizations existing side by side, not able to understand each other, not able to compromise their interests and at the bottom incompatible, trying perhaps through affections of individuals to get on together, but one *going* and the other *coming*.'

In his phrase 'trying to get on together' lies the kernel of the whole situation, for it means not only for to-day and to-morrow but it is a continuous process. For the progressive development of society it is essential that some degree of harmony should exist in its true unit the family. The child must not only be integrated into the family, but through it into the com-

munity. Dr. Burgess, of Chicago University, has said: 'Society is not a collection of individuals but an integration of persons.' The development of personalities that facilitate integration should be one of our primary aims. Any personality in which the predominant characteristic is either a feeling of inferiority or its compensatory expression—marked egocentricity—will retard that integration.

Progress lies in our being able to interpret to the child the social values of the group (values meaning those ideals towards which action is directed) in such a way that assimilation of these is the result. This cannot be accomplished unless we understand the central figure—the child.

Truthful Textbooks

OLIVER BELL

Assistant Secretary of the British National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation

THE Council and the Assembly of the League of Nations have adopted the report of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation which met in Geneva last July. For educationalists perhaps the most interesting section of its work lies in the report of the delegation of the sub-committee of experts on the Instruction of Youth in the Aims and Objects of the League. This meeting immediately preceded that of the full committee.

The membership of the delegation included Professor Gilbert Murray as Chairman, Professor Alfred Zimmern, Mme. Dreyfus-Barney, Professor Gallavresi, Dr. Schellberg and others. Some of the items on the agenda, even to the uninitiated, contain the germs of much future interest. Greatly daring at long last, having previously nibbled at the fringes of the problem, the matter of the revision of textbooks has been seriously taken up. Before the Committee was a vast but interesting report compiled by the Paris Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. This document showed the action that has been taken up to date by governments and private organizations with regard to the revision of school textbooks and the removal from them of elements prejudicial to mutual understanding and to the spirit of goodwill. It is understood that the report is shortly to be published. Future work in this direction includes the summoning of a small special committee composed of the various international elements that have dealt with aspects of the subject in the past.

Two other wide and slightly controversial subjects came up for review. The one was cinematography and the other broadcasting. As to the former a decision was reached (not without encountering some opposition) that the League Secretariat should set to work to discover how a special film or films may be made for use in connection with League teaching in schools. The fundamental idea is that in the Far East, for example, it is impossible orally to give an adequate explanation of the League and its works without some visual aids, for the whole somewhat Western background of the League is culturally as the poles apart from the audience.

As to broadcasting, high tributes were paid to the educational work of the B.B.C., which apparently is a model to all other nations. It has been decided that the Paris Institute shall continue an inquiry already begun, the purpose of which is to find out the advantages which broadcasting presents for teaching on the League and for education in general. A distinction is to be drawn between information regarding the results in the schools and those obtained elsewhere, by which is meant study groups of adult listeners, and so forth.

All of these matters I think are of sufficient interest to the outside world to justify some attention being paid to the developments of the work of this side of the League. I shall be very glad to give any readers information in detail as to the efforts that are being made. [107 Albert Palace Mansions, N.W.11.]

What do we need to Know about Young Children in the Nursery School?

C. WINIFRED HARLEY

Director of the Nursery School Research Centre, Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon

‘STUDY your pupils for I am sure you do not know them’, was the cry with which Rousseau started an entirely new kind of education which was later to develop a scientific approach to child study, and in time revolutionized the entire educational system in Europe.

For all those of us who have been trained in this century for educational work with little children, this experimental approach to teaching is natural, sound and fruitful. In the last ten years, however, new developments in science and the scientific method have opened up still newer methods of study and are revealing more and more how ignorant we still are and how many of our practices are still based upon opinion and not upon the result of objective studies of large groups of children.

Right at the beginning of the United States movement, the nursery school was envisaged as a laboratory—a place for studying the child—an educational experience for the child certainly (this has always been the main emphasis at the Merrill-Palmer School) but not a place run according to any set form or pattern or tradition. It was in fact to be a place which intended as far as possible to find out what was best for little children by scientific inquiry and methods, and then upon that basis, plan the child’s daily life habits. The Merrill-Palmer School, then, was one of the first factors in changing the emphasis in the nursery school field. Many other similar child research centres were opened, and the child indeed invaded the college campus until every branch of study was turning its attention to the young child.

A new name has been given to this type of study in America: Research in Child Development. Child development is defined thus in the twenty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education: ‘The term . . . is intended to embrace the anatomical, physiological embryological, as well as the purely mental aspects of development. Indeed the term

development in its broadest sense is a unifying concept which supersedes the old duality of mind and body. In this sense the study of child development is a subdivision of human biology and represents a correlation of all psychological sciences upon the focal problem of early development of the individual.’

It is most important in planning a child’s occupation in the nursery school that we should know what type of behaviour and performance to expect of children at different development levels. Can we measure the ability of little children of two years and under? How important is it at this age level to be able to have a scientific measure of a child’s capacity? Miss Stutsman, in her recent book on ‘Mental Measurement of the Pre-school Child’, says: ‘Every child has a right to an adequate psychological analysis—a taking stock of his assets and liabilities at a sufficiently early age to aid him as far as possible to make the most of life.’

Early diagnosis of general mental defect is of great practical importance, but just as important is the early discovery of superior and special ability which is more effectively trained and guided if discovered early. Terman in his studies of superior children has ably pointed out the possibilities of early diagnosis and the necessity for skilful guidance. In the hands of a skilful teacher the knowledge of her children’s mental level, according to some standardized test such as Merrill-Palmer, is of inestimable value as a guide and check on her own subjective knowledge of the children as she sees them in school.

Such tests have also given us considerable help in knowing what performance to expect of children of different ages. When should a child be able to cut with a pair of scissors? Miss Stutsman, who gives this as one test in her series, says: ‘The inability to perform different movements with the two hands at the same time seems to be characteristic of the child

under 36 months'. Few children under three will be able to cut. Binet gives seven years as the age at which most children can tie their shoe laces. Binet in his test found that when looking at a picture the average three-year-old child merely enumerates objects in the picture, a seven-year-old child describes action in the picture, and it is not until twelve years that one should expect interpretation of the meaning of the pictures.

When can children button buttons? This is important, as the ability to dress and undress is an indication of independence at these ages. No child can button even one button at 23 months. At 33 months it takes 170 seconds to button two buttons.

Do we really know whether there is any value in early training in some of these experiences that we think of as suitable to the two-year, two-and-a-half-year-old level? There is some indication to the contrary. Gesell reports one study of identical twins of 46 weeks of age. For six weeks Twin T was given daily practice in climbing, while Twin C, the control who had had no training during that period, was given daily practice the two following weeks. At 55 weeks of age the climbing ability of the twins was nearly the same—that is, Twin C had achieved as much in two weeks of practice as Twin T had accomplished in six weeks. Gesell concludes that the superior performance of Twin C, with only a third the opportunity of practice, must be due to maturation of the processes involved.

Josephine Rohrs made a similar study at the Merrill-Palmer School with two groups of fifteen two-year and three-and-a-half-year-old children. She had a control group of children on our waiting list, and not in the nursery school, who were paired as nearly as possible as to physical age, mental age and social background with the fifteen nursery school children. The nursery school group was given practice at periodic intervals in buttoning of buttons, climbing a ladder and cutting with scissors. At the end of the thirteen weeks covered by the study, when the practice group had been trained for twelve weeks and the control group given one final week of intensive training, the outstanding result is the marked similarity in the gains made by both groups.

Miss Rohrs in her summary asks: 'Is it profitable to insist that the child spend much time and energy in learning to button his clothes at an early age in order that he may become independent as soon as possible? The results of this experiment seem to indicate that the time and energy of both child and parent will be conserved if there is no insistence upon the child's learning this skill until he is about three years old.'

There are further questions that nursery school teachers should ask themselves. Do we know anything about the effect of large groups at this age on the individual child? Should we ever bring children of two to three-and-a-half together for any kind of group work? Experience in nearly all American nursery schools tends to discourage this at the younger age levels. Should children in the nursery school be given only large play material, play with which tends to encourage activity?

Have any studies been made to demonstrate the value of the open-air nursery school so much advocated in England?

For several years at the Merrill-Palmer School our youngest group of children, two to three-and-a-half years old, in addition to playing out of doors during the morning, took their afternoon nap under a shelter in the open air. After three years of this we tried to evaluate this practice, and when we compared these children physically with our older group who slept indoors, the combined opinions of the doctor, staff and nursery school teachers could find no improvement in the children's health or in the immunity to colds in the group who had had the open-air experience. As there were several disadvantages in our Merrill-Palmer situation, for instance, lack of accessibility to the toilet, we discontinued this practice.

Do we know whether colds are really less in these open-air schools? Do we know whether we are making too much demand on a child's energy which he expends in keeping warm, or in carrying the clothes he needs to keep him warm? We need to study these questions in all our nursery schools so that we may know that we are planning the nursery school on a sound foundation of scientific knowledge of the needs of little children.—[Report of Address given at B.C.E.C. Conference, London, July 1931.]

Some Studies made on the Sleep and Diet of Nursery School Children

MARY E. SWEENY

Assistant Director of the Merrill-Palmer School

SOME of the questions arising in regard to sleep of young children are: what is the optimal amount of sleep needed for the physical well-being and to insure the best condition for the growth and development during these years; how is the child affected by receiving too little sleep and may he acquire the habit of sleeping more than is necessary; how great are the normal individual differences; to what extent is the amount of sleep conditioned by habit; is the instinct of sleep educable; how is sleep influenced by food habits, by fatigue, by changes in weather, by humidity; how is it influenced by what the child has done before he goes to bed; does the young child need to take a nap?

The intense activity of the child, his lack of co-ordination resulting in a greater expenditure of energy, the nervous tension in learning to do things, his nervous instability, the countless new impressions he is receiving from the world around him, the adjusting to the personality of the people he comes in contact with, all give evidence of the need for adequate rest period in the day time and sleep at night.

A study was made at the University of Toronto upon thirteen children in the Nursery School, and eighty-eight children in their homes, but whose parents were enrolled in University classes. Their findings showed that after five years old the children did not make a habit of taking a day-time nap or rest; that between one and two years, long sleep in the day is associated with long sleep at night; whereas between three and four years, long day sleep is associated with short night sleep. The total number of hours of sleep from one to two years was $13\frac{3}{4}$; from two to three years, and three to four years, was $12\frac{3}{4}$; from four to five years, 12 hours.

At the University of Minnesota a study was made for one week of the sleep of about one thousand children, who were six years or under. The results showed that the mean amount of

sleep is less than that recommended by writers on child welfare; that the mean sleep decreases with age; there is gradual discontinuance of nap and no sex differences. The total sleep ranged from 14 hours at six months to 11 hours, 42 minutes at five years, and the nap in the day from 2 hours 48 minutes at eleven months to $13\frac{1}{2}$ minutes at five years and eleven months.

Studies made at the Merrill-Palmer School, Detroit, show only a difference of 14 minutes in the mean hours of sleep at night for children of two years and children of five years. The regularity of the hour at which children of the same age were put to bed showed a range of from 58 to 6 minutes in the two-year-olds, and 57 to 2 minutes in the five-year-olds.

Sherman, at the Washington D.C. Child Research Centre, made a study of the relation between the morning activity and the duration of the afternoon sleep of twenty-two children between two-and-a-half and three years, over an eight-month period. He found that the afternoon sleep of the children who had been most active during the morning was more restless than that of children who had been relatively quiet, and that the less the degree of morning play activity the quicker the child falls asleep after going to bed. This seems to contradict the prevalent opinion that the very active child is the first to fall to sleep.

A study made at Merrill-Palmer School concerning night sleep showed that 75 per cent of the restless sleep of children between three to five years reported by parents was that of boys who were unusually active and energetic in the day-time.

Present-day science has demonstrated that the quality and quantity of nourishment given any animal influence its growth and development: that the relation between food and health is direct and positive; and that the feeding of children is no longer a matter of chance, but is based upon fundamental principles.

One of the situations facing every nursery

school teacher is how to apply in the daily feeding of children the facts which are already known about the choice of foods and their preparation for eating. The laboratories in physiology and biochemistry have demonstrated that certain substances known as Amino acids are essential for replacing worn-out tissue and the growth of bones, nerves, muscles; in fact, all parts of the body. Some foods contain a large percentage of these substances, others a small percentage. The body cannot synthesize them, so that if they are to be given to the child they must be present in the food.

That the absence of these substances may seriously interfere with, and may definitely retard, growth and development has been conclusively demonstrated by animal experimentation. Scientific considerations such as these make the choice of food of great importance. For young children, among the most satisfactory foods supplying these Amino acids are unskimmed milk and eggs.

Not only must the body have Amino acids, but if it is to function properly and to build its tissues it must have daily supplied a number of minerals. Important among these elements are calcium, phosphorus, iron and copper, because inadequate amounts in the diet induce diseased conditions known as rickets and nutritional anæmias. The lay person usually recognizes the child that has had rickets by his bow legs and thinks only the bones have been influenced by this condition, but recent work in the fields of physiology and medicine point to the fact that while the injury to the bones has been marked there is evidence that the injury to the nervous system, the digestive system and the muscles has been even greater. The years when the child is growing rapidly and the bony tissue is being laid down it is especially important that the food contain adequate quantities of calcium and phosphorus as well as vitamin D. Carefully controlled metabolism studies made on children in their early years by Dr. Sherman, of Columbia University, showed that a quart of unskimmed milk will furnish the optimum amount of calcium and phosphorus if the rest of the diet is adequate. Their experiments indicated that a pint of milk was the minimum amount which could be given, and the body not eliminate more of these elements than it received.

The importance of vitamins in the diet of young children is so well recognized and their influence on growth and their protective influence on the body has been so thoroughly demonstrated that it seems unnecessary to call further attention to them. The fact remains however that studies of the food intake of children on various economic levels shows them lacking in their vitamin content. These vitamins are found in butter, milk, eggs, green leafy vegetables and fresh fruits.

How are vegetables changed in their food value by cooking? Cabbage, for example, on being cooked in varying quantities of water may lose from 61 to 73 per cent of its calcium, from 45 to 59 per cent of its phosphorus, and from 55 to 66 per cent of its iron. Can some of the vegetables usually served cooked be served raw to children? Experiments which have been conducted for a number of years give evidence that young children can eat a much greater variety of uncooked fruits and vegetables than has been generally considered desirable.

Observations made upon groups of children for a number of years indicate that children respond most favourably to food which has a pleasing appearance, and give expression to their delight in it; that the use of colourful foods such as tomatoes, green string beans, carrots and lettuce on his plate may change the child's attitude towards the food; that variety in the consistency of the food increases their interest and their intake, and that certain food combinations have an unvarying appeal to children of certain age levels.

There seems to be much evidence that in the main children have comparatively few food dislikes, but they must be served with a new food several times until they get acquainted with it. After sufficient acquaintance there is little resistance on the part of the child to eating it. A study of pre-adolescent children who had also been in nursery schools evidenced that they prefer foods they learn to like when they are young.

The normal child is a hungry child and any failure of appetite or any disinterest in food should send us looking for the cause in foci of infection, fatigue, kind and quantity of food eaten, in sleep habits and habits of elimination. —[Report of Address given at B.C.E.C. Conference, London, July 1931.]

The London Boy at School

EVELYN SHARP

Author of 'The London Child', 'The Child Grows Up', 'Hertha Ayrton', 'Here We Go Round', and others

I AM afraid of iron discipline', said the headmaster, when we talked of punishments after he had taken me round his school. It was characteristic of him to express it like this, I thought, for by that time I had learnt that he was not afraid of new ideas, or of leaving his possessions lying about, or of trusting his staff as he trusted his boys, or of anything like that. When this sort of teacher confesses that he is afraid, it can be generally assumed that he has merely stopped at a door through which fools rush blindly.

Yet a school like his, described in official language as a 'London County Council elementary school, junior boys', situated in one of the over-populated districts of South-East London, would seem to present most of the difficulties arising out of classes that are too large, scholars who in many cases are under-nourished and parents who are generally poor, which might tempt any master to become, in despair, an iron disciplinarian. It cannot be an easy matter to rule out short cuts from a system that has to control and educate some three hundred and twenty boys between the ages of seven and eleven, whose hours of sleep and leisure are spent beyond the school boundary and not always in the best of homes.

This headmaster is not opposed on principle to the use of the cane, though, like others I have met, he considers it essential that the punishment should follow immediately on the offence and be done with. He would use it, for instance, in a case of serious bullying, which sometimes occurs among the rougher type of boy. Asked whether he thought it could have much effect on a boy who was already accustomed to being knocked about at home, his reply was interesting. 'Yes', he said, 'because the boy learns that we consider a cut on the hand the worst punishment we can give, and so he realizes he has committed the worst kind of offence.' He added that he rarely has to cane one of his boys, for there is very little real

naughtiness among them. A year ago, when the schools in that district were re-organized and the division made between senior and junior elementary schools, so that he lost his old boys over eleven and received many new boys under that age, 'naturally', he said, 'a certain amount of mischief was reported to me, because the boys were coming a new way to school and found new things to explore'. There was, for example, the J.P.'s signboard, which came to grief because they found that to crawl along the ledge just below it offered splendid facilities for daring and variety. But when the culprits were sent round with a note to the indignant proprietor, and they told him how it had happened, his anger evaporated and no more was heard of the matter.

'The important thing was that, when I asked who had done the mischief, these two owned up', he went on. 'They always do own up, so there can't be any real wickedness in them.' I agreed, with the mental reservation that the Head of every school does not create this kind of confidence in his pupils; and when a junior master showed me the loose money from club contributions that he kept in an unlocked drawer with the full knowledge of the boys, it became clear that here was a system in which iron discipline is replaced by trust and understanding, with excellent results among boys who are drawn from many kinds of homes.

'About three-eighths come from very poor homes, where from varying causes the family income is irregular', I was told. 'The rest have fairly good homes, being the sons of policemen or other fathers who are in regular employment.' You can never get away from home conditions in an elementary school; but here especially they are not ignored because of the emphasis that is placed on healthy bodies as the indispensable accompaniment of healthy minds. A system of class grading gives the Head exceptional opportunities for testing his theory that a dull mentality is usually the accompaniment of bad

home conditions. There are eight classes, each of which has to contain round about forty boys. Into the lowest of these, Class I, are put for one term all the boys of seven who come up from the infants' department. Above this are four ordinary classes, II, III, IV and V, through which the normal boy progresses until he reaches the top one, from which at the age of eleven he leaves the junior school. Of those who are leaving this year, twenty-nine per cent. will enter either a central or a secondary school, while the remainder will, of course, go on to the senior elementary school, proportions that the Head ambitiously hopes to reverse when the unsettling effects of re-organization have subsided. As some evidence of his contention that emphasis laid on physical fitness does not impair mental fitness, he will tell you, if you press him, that in the last three years eighteen of his boys have won Junior County scholarships.

But there are always some boys who, handicapped by lack of ability and backward in development, though not mentally defective, cannot keep up with the others. Are they to hold the rest back by their slowness, besides acquiring an inferiority complex themselves by their

failure to win promotion at the required rate of progress? That might happen but for the system adopted at this school of running three parallel 'a' classes, in which these duller boys are placed—Classes IIIa, IVa and Va. A slow boy therefore passes from Class I either into Class II or Class IIIa, or perhaps through one to the other, and then goes on in due course to Class IVa and finally to Class Va. Being with boys of his own mental calibre and taught on that assumption, he never feels inferior to his class-mates; and when the time comes for him to leave, he does so from the top class, though not the higher section of it. He thus never acquires a sense of failure from remaining in a lower form, as in an ordinary school, and often improves sufficiently under the system to get drafted, on his way up, into one of the 'straight' classes, as the others are called.

The point is, however, that it is found almost universally that physique plays a large part in the grading of the boys. The dull boy, in fact, is nearly always the badly bred, badly nurtured, often the neglected boy; and every effort is consequently made to improve his health and so brighten his faculties. Only about twenty



A Sketching Class

boys in the whole school get free milk daily, but owing to the representations of the Head quite a hundred and twenty buy milk voluntarily, with noticeably good results. In addition, as much time as can possibly be squeezed out of the curriculum is devoted to games and physical culture of an enlightened kind, by which the boy does not learn to perform extraordinary athletic feats (though I saw some excellent jumping going on after school hours in preparation for the annual sports), but develops his limbs and organs normally and becomes alert, lithe and fit.

'Are you taking them out for physical exercise?' I asked of one young master (a Rugby player, by the way), as his boys filed out of their class room.

'They are taking me', was the reply; 'I'm never allowed to forget when the time comes!' I went with them down to the playground, where, after the necessary drudgery of physical jerks had been gone through, there was a series of running and jumping exercises, followed by a jolly game called skittle ball, invented by this master and better adapted to a hard ground than football and cricket, though these too are played. It was a delight to watch these boys, their master playing with them like an elder brother; for the freedom of their movements, their running and jumping action, and the sporting spirit displayed throughout, made one forget completely that they were not boys at a middle-class preparatory school who came from homes in which want and overcrowding were unknown.

A tour round the class rooms where work was in full swing showed one that physical development was an integral part of the boys' education, not a substitute for it. It was again emphasized that the standard of bodily fitness was lower in the 'a' classes. 'Of course', said my guide the headmaster, 'some are more capable of improvement than others. Here is one'—he indicated a puny little fellow in Class IIIa who made rather a poor show of reading aloud (for I was seeing the normal, not the show work of the school)—'who will probably always remain on the 'a' side; he has a very bad home, mother and father both been in prison. But over there, that boy in glasses, who gave us a lot of trouble at first, showing a thoroughly unbalanced dis-

position, always sticking pins into people and that sort of thing, and apparently incapable of concentration, is beginning to learn self-control and to take pains over his work, and he will probably make good in the end.' (I learned that the 'a' boys show most intelligence over arithmetic and geometric drawing, and are least brilliant over composition and subjects demanding the imaginative faculties, and began to wonder whether such boys are a natural product of a scientific age. That, however, is another story.)

There are two examinations every year by which class promotion is regulated, so every boy gets his chance of moving upwards, also of staying longer in one class than another if this seems desirable. The actual teaching, limited in scope by the size of the classes, was conducted more or less in the usual way, the master asking questions on a lesson previously given, and selecting from the boys whose hands were held up those who should answer them, or else giving a fresh lesson with blackboard illustrations. In the course of my visit I acquired smatterings of information about the Spanish Armada, Central Africa, Bishop Hatto, and much besides. An excellent plan obtains in Class V, where the boys prepare lectures on subjects chosen by themselves, and give them to the assembled class, who heckle them afterwards with questions; they prepare them from books at home or at school, or in any way they like, and I was sorry I could not wait to hear one on smugglers. I saw two blackboards covered with really admirable drawings to illustrate a lecture on trees, and also the rough notebook of the boy who had chosen railways for his subject, and, I heard, kept his listeners entranced.

The Head confessed to me that there was room for improvement on the handicraft side of the curriculum, which he hopes soon to strengthen by the addition to his staff of a first-rate woman art teacher. Well, I know how high the handwork standard is in some of the elementary schools, so he may have been right; but I saw some attractive specimens of drawing both in V and Va. The best of these suggested the influence of the lino-cut, and some of the boys do turn out very good lino-cuts, working often with a tool made out of an umbrella rib stuck into a piece of firewood. I noticed that when

free drawing was allowed many of the boys chose for their subjects country scenes, a curly path leading up to a cottage, and so on. If I lived in a tenement in that neighbourhood I should probably take refuge in that sort of picture, too. More ingenious, though less romantic, was somebody's realistic drawing of 'Father reading at home', in which the figure in the arm-chair was solidly reproduced in the mirror over the fireplace.

I must pass over many interesting features; the co-operation of parents, for instance, who come to a 'Social' once a month in the winter and always have access to the school; also the annual school journey, which takes a selection of the older boys either to a farm at Felixstowe or to the camp at Dymchurch, and gives them many opportunities of showing how they have learnt to employ their leisure intelligently, besides affording them a fortnight's delirious joy by the seaside. Nor can the casual visitor grasp the whole of a school's achievement, whether in work or play, in one day's visit. It is possible, however, to get some idea of its aims and hopes, of the plan underlying its system of work and play, of the effect of all this upon the behaviour of the pupils. Apart from the good mental and physical results already touched on, I was struck by the eagerness of the majority of the boys both in class and in playground, by their friendly relations with their teachers, by their natural reception of the visitor. Except for a sudden access of shyness in one class (I think induced by one boy's attack of stage-fright when asked to tell me a story, for this kind of thing is terribly infectious), they showed no sign of self-consciousness. They were neither curious nor indifferent when I first appeared in the hall, and the one to whom I spoke took me straight to the Head without any fuss; they had

in fact the natural good manners of all nice children who have been neither repressed nor left to run wild by their teachers. I hope their headmaster will continue to be afraid of iron discipline.



Going to Work

(Lino-cut)

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NO child is born with a stammer, but many acquire one in early youth. If it is sympathetically treated at the outset it can frequently be cured completely instead of becoming a life-long disfigurement.

With careful handling my child lost her stammer within two months. It never returned. Jill was three years old when Dinah was born, and shortly after that event she began to stutter painfully. One day a well-known psychologist came to our house, and he remarked that in his opinion all stammering was purely mental in its origin and due to a lack of self-confidence. To my surprise he pointed out that Jill only stammered on words denoting the family or the family relationship. She broke down on words like: 'Jill, Dinah, Mummy, Daddy, me, you, her, sister'.

He was quite right though we had not noticed this ourselves.

He explained that before the birth of the second child, Jill had been the centre and pivot of the home and my attention. All visitors inquired after her, brought her little gifts, and she alone 'ruled the roost'. Now she had to take a second place, and her baby mind found it hard to grasp the justice of this sudden dethronement. Visitors calling asked, 'How is Baby?' (it was not Jill they meant). Long admiring glances and adoring phrases were the new baby's lot, while Jill stood by unnoticed. Then someone suddenly said, 'Oh! Jill! hallo!' and usually crowned the insult by adding, 'What a lovely little sister you have got! Aren't you proud of her?'

Jill's self-confidence had received a rude and sudden shock. She found it difficult to reconcile herself to this changed world, and the outward manifestation of her mental wound was a lack of adjustment in her speech—especially in the words relating to her family.

'What can I do to remedy this?' I asked the psychologist.

'At any cost you must help Jill to regain her self-confidence', he replied. 'She is too young to understand reason, so she will not realize the justice of the position. Whenever possible

attend to her needs before those of the baby. Warn your friends to pay especial attention to Jill.'

We acted upon this advice. If Dinah cried and Jill simultaneously needed help, I just let the baby cry a little longer and helped Jill first. I made a point of remembering how much she had figured in my time before baby's arrival, and tried in every way more *gradually* to help her to independence. When inviting friends I often added a little note explaining the crisis in our family, and asking their co-operation on their visit. In every possible way I bolstered up Jill's shaken self-respect.

After six weeks the stammer only appeared when the child was tired or over-excited, and within two months it had entirely vanished.

The habit had been broken in time and it has never returned.



Jill and Dinah

Schoolboy Ambassadors

GERRY BRINDLEY

THE time is not inopportune to offer to the educational demi-gods some constructive thoughts from a roving youth (now engaged in writing this far out on the Atlantic), on what might be done educationally to help to restore England's trade prosperity. He, in his zealous bunk-dreamings, compares Potts, the 'Yank'; Bull, the Englishman; André, the 'Frog'; Groot, the 'Sausage-eater'; Psulika, the Canadian-Pole, and others he has drunk with in his wanderings. He cannot help murmuring in metaphorically-mixed style: 'Top dog rests on his oars—that's Bull—closes like an oyster—awakes to find the foreign cock crowing!' He has seen the ready acceptance and exploitation by Potts of new ideas: he has seen their fruition and the resultant Heinz, Ford and Woolworth. He has seen Potts steal the British order for shoes in the far away Mauritius Isles. He jumps up in his bunk raging, swears he'll warn his race, he'll open the shell, he'll make them travel and see how Groot is working, how Psulika sweats on a bowl of soup and a chunk of black bread. . . . But here is not the place to record how the shellbacks in the smoky fo'c'sle threatened any further outburst of such Mazzini-like zeal with a marline spike. Suffice it to say, he came to the conclusion that Johnnie Bull must TRAVEL, that the fourteen-fifteen year is an excellent opportunity for many to do so—for maybe, whilst you cannot move the aged and water-logged craft, youth with her white-furled sails awaits the following winds.

This travel in the last year will be the culmination of the ten years spent within the Primary School walls. It will be the complete realization of theory in a reality, the weaving of the strands of Standards IV-VIII into a finished article—an article that knows what it wants, can rely upon itself to get it—to the service of citizenship.

Important as is the school journey, the camp, the excursion, it has not the significance of a system of 'Ambassadorship' and this is penned under difficulties in the hope that Education

Authorities and teachers will give the system a fighting chance.

Jim Strange, as Captain of Wellington School, Salop, with his prefects and other picked boys, twelve in all, went lately to Liverpool for a week's stay at the house of a Liverpool School twelve. They visited during School time and will take a part in ordinary school lessons, living (with special excursions sprinkled) the ordinary life of the Liverpool lads. Wellington Ambassadors have as their chief aim the study of the house system of government.

Lessons were compared and the usual benefits of Travel derived by visiting places of real interest. See their programme below.

The next term the Liverpool twelve visited Wellington for a week. Since Wellington's visit, correspondence takes place between the 'twelves', and preparations are made in the geography and history lesson, etc., so that the programme decided upon can be appreciated fully. The visit to the coal mine has already caused great interest in the Geography course.

Some advantages of the system :—

- (1) Braces up the slack mid-term energy.
- (2) Aids distribution of ideas and helps to break down insularity of schools.
- (3) Brings Bull into touch with Jim Holcroft of the Potteries, Sandy McEwen of Glasgow, Richard Tyler of London, Patrick O'Hara of Belfast, etc.
- (4) Gives practical value to theoretical lessons.
- (5) Only real expense is train fare which is half single fare for return journey.
- (6) There can be exchanges between schools in the same towns, county, or country. With schools abroad.
- (7) Links up home life.

And here are some problems to be faced :—

- (1) *Registers.* Permission to mark a temporary register must be obtained.
- (2) *Staffing.* Supply teachers may have to be drafted to take place of visiting teacher.
- (3) *Sleeping Accommodation.* Where there is little accommodation exchanges could take place

simultaneously. The two boys will not be together—they can be given a special chum at each end to correspond with.

(4) *Exchanges between similar types of school* would facilitate matters for a try-out. Promotes a bigger interest in the exchange of ideas.

(5) If exchanges take place during *holidays* the *esprit de corps* intimacy of the school life is

lost and the exchange becomes more or less a social sightseeing visit.

(6) *Great preparations* should be made for visit in order to take full advantage of facilities—correspondence between boys; lesson material; system studies.

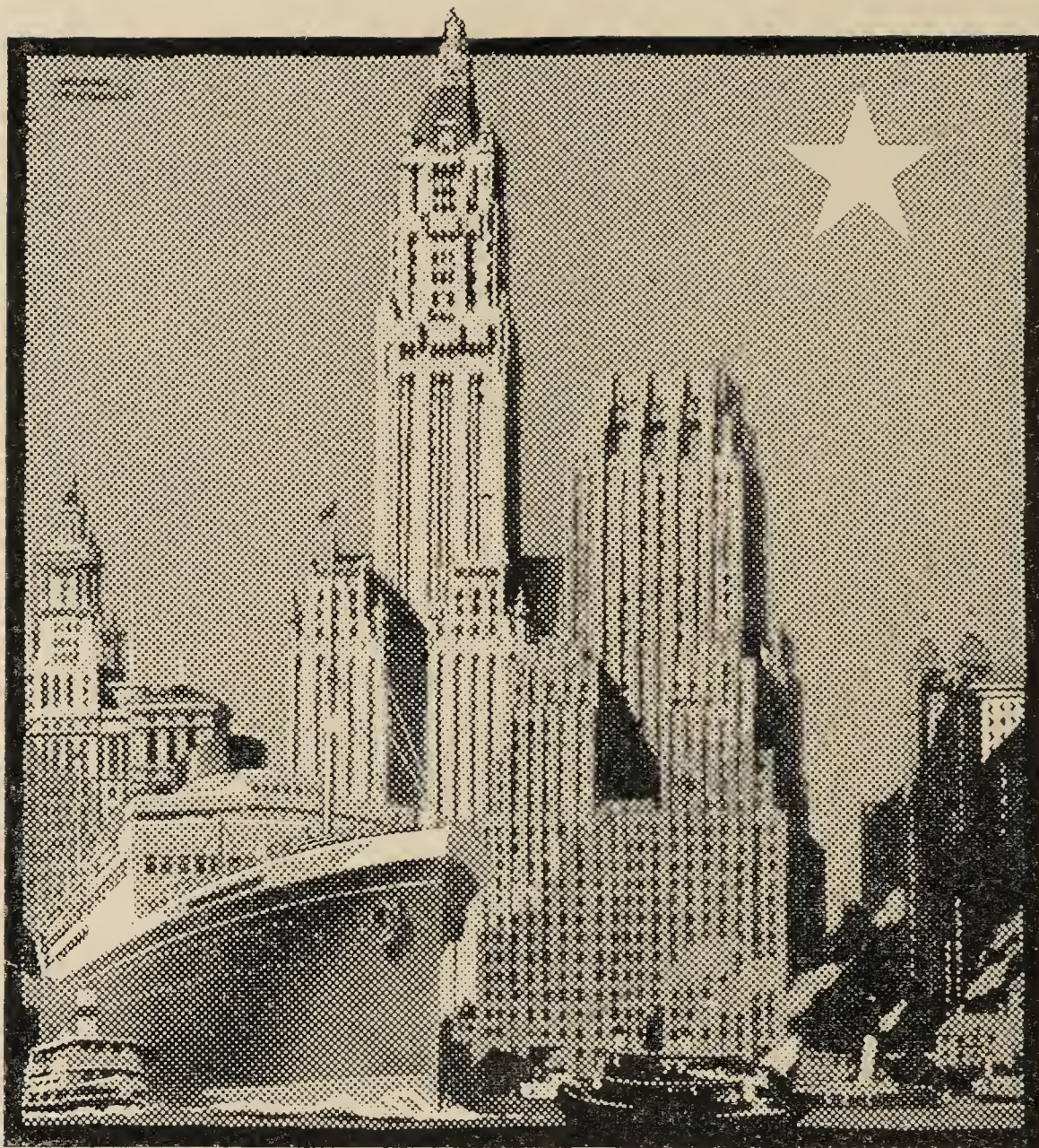
PROGRAMME IN SHROPSHIRE

<i>Before Breakfast</i>				
Mon.	Run	Official Welcome Classes	Classes	Cinema
Tues.	Swim	Classes	Hobbies Exhibition	Annual Wellington Fair
Wed.	Walk	Visit to Iron Works	Chara. visit to great Fault of Shropshire to Boscobel Tree in which Charles II hid, etc.	Home Night
Thur.		Exchange of Text and Writing Books. Study Classes	Classes and Debate (Prepared by both schools)	Soccer Match
Fri.	Swim	Meeting of Officials re Organization Discussion	House Meetings and Concert	Home Night
Sat.	Run	Visit to Local Coal Mine	Hike to the Wrekin	Wellington Fair
Sun.	Swim	Service	Free	Home Train

PROGRAMME IN LIVERPOOL

<i>Before Breakfast</i>				
Mon.	—	Welcome Classes	Liner and Dock Trip	Cinema
Tues.	Harrier	Classes (School Government System Study)	Civic Week Visits. Liver Building Bibbys' Exchanges	Visit to Boys' Club
Wed.	Swim	Classes	Classes	Visit to Cathedral Museum Art Gallery
Thur.	—	Classes	Classes Debate (Inter-School Prepared)	Soccer Match
Fri.	Swim	Classes	House Meetings and Concert	Home Night
Sat.	Harrier	Visit to Levers' Factory Port Sunlight	Hike round Wirral	
Sun.	Swim	Chara. ride of Liverpool and District Childwalt Abbey, Aintree, etc.	Home Afternoon	Station Farewell

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International Notes

Australia

The Commonwealth Kindergarten and Primary Association has been formed in Sydney. Miss Simpson, ex-Inspector of Schools in N.S.W. and Miss Dumolo, Principal of the Sydney Kindergarten Training College, are taking an active interest in the Association. It has been formed so that those interested in young children may have an opportunity of meeting together for the purpose of co-operating in any way that pertains to the well-being of little children. It is hoped that all societies interested in the education of children will affiliate and form branches in different States. A State Conference was held in June and dealt with 'The Early Education of Children'. Further information from B. M. Gerahty, Hon. Secretary, C.K.P.A., Sydney Kindergarten Training College, Henrietta Street, Waverley, N.S.Wales.



England

Academic Education—At a meeting of the Education Committee of the London County Council, Mr. W. H. Webbe is reported to have said that he thought the Council had perhaps gone too far in the provision of education of the academic type. To-day the world demanded education of a different type from that which had been so justly the pride of this country. Industry was in a parlous state largely because industry and industrial leaders lacked the imagination and force which made British industry in the past, and because the best brains of the country for generations had been diverted through the secondary schools into the professions.

World Day for Animals—The World Day for Animals (4th October) is the day dedicated to St. Francis of Assisi and the cause of the animals he loved. Teachers wishing to make special reference to the needs of animals on this day should communicate with the World League against Vivisection and for Protection of Animals, 47 Hamilton Road, Highbury, London, N.5.



Germany

The New Education Fellowship is organizing a conference for German-speaking countries in Dortmund from 3rd to 5th October. The subject of the Conference will be 'Die Lebenswelt des Kindes unserer Zeit und die Erziehung'. Information from Herr Dr. Lambeck, Präsidentenstrasse 9, Dortmund.



Italy

Sunday Conferences for Parents have been arranged by the Superintendent of Elementary Schools at Padua, which will provide eight courses in physical and mental hygiene for the mothers of elementary school pupils.

Poland

A School for Mothers of a new type has been organized in Warsaw. The school is intended especially for the mothers of the poorer classes. It has been found that regular attendance at these classes was impossible in many cases and that the poorer mothers, either from lack of time, or from laziness, would not go to school. Therefore a travelling school has been created which visits periodically every quarter of the city. Another excellent method of reaching the mothers is through the training of a corps of friendly visitors drawn from among the same class of mothers, who have already completed the school course. These go daily to the houses to teach, direct and counsel. They come very close to the mothers, for they come, not from a higher or privileged class, but from the same social and economic level.



Scotland

Why Children Leave the Secondary School is the subject of a bulletin issued by the Scottish Council for Research in Education. One of the greatest educational problems of the present day is the wastage in the Secondary Schools. Dr. L. T. Hopkins, of Harvard University, undertaking an investigation of the *Intelligence of Continuation-School Children in Massachusetts*, in 1924 came to the conclusion that the one fundamental cause for withdrawal from school was low intelligence of the children concerned. Margaret C. M'Cluskey's conclusions, as given in this Bulletin, are the same. 'There seems little doubt that lack of mental ability is the most potent cause of failure to complete the three years' secondary course.' Reasons given for the withdrawal of children were chiefly: (1) Economic necessity; (2) Parents or children dissatisfied with progress; (3) Children do not like school. Dissatisfaction with progress seems to indicate that the course being followed is, in some way, unsuitable for the child; and dislike of school is unusual with children who can manage to do their work without undue effort. Hence the second and third reasons given seem to indicate inability to benefit by the instruction offered in the secondary school, and the fact that these reasons were given with regard to children of low intelligence quotients would seem to suggest that low mentality may be the cause of such failure.'



New Education Fellowship News

Dr. William Boyd, Lecturer in Education, Glasgow University, will return in October from his year in the United States where he has been Visiting Professor at Columbia University. Dr. Boyd has lectured in many places in the States and has also undertaken a short lecture tour in Canada.

Mrs. Beatrice Ensor will sail for the United States in October for a two-months' lecture tour.

Miss Muriel Mackenzie who has been a member of

London Headquarters' staff for many years has now resigned in order to take up work of her own. All readers of *The New Era*, which she has so ably sub-edited, will wish her well in her new life.

Mr. E. Zavitz, formerly Principal of the Château de Bures, France, has accepted the headship of the University School, Cincinnati.



The attention of readers is drawn to the **Canadian Geographical Journal**. This periodical is less well known in Great Britain than it deserves, both for its excellent material and very fine illustrations. It may be obtained from The Canadian Geographical Society, Kingsway House, W.C.2. Price 12/6 (\$3) per annum.



**Nursery School Association of Great Britain,
32 Bloomsbury Street, London, W.C.1**

At a time when reduction in financial expenditure is realized by all political parties to be necessary, clearness of vision as to the relative values of the different aspects of our national life, and of the objects of national expenditure, is a supreme necessity. It is the responsibility of all those who represent the interests of very little children to face the fact that any reduction in national expenditure on their health and education, even for a year, means the sacrifice, not of material possessions, but of so much flesh and blood and mental possibilities, and to keep this fact well to the fore while decisions are being made. The experience of the Nursery School Association during the eight years of its existence has been again and again that when national 'economy' is called for, neither the rights of little children who have the future to face—and what kind of future, who can tell?—nor their helplessness, nor the disproportionate injury that the deprivation of the essentials of healthy living inflict upon them, are remembered by our Statesmen and the majority of our parliamentary representatives. Often it has only been by means of determined organized public protest that their position has been even partially saved.

During the last two or three years the general concern and sense of responsibility of the public for very young children has notably increased. Is it too much to hope that this time, instead of hitting the youngest first, there may emerge on the contrary a strong protective instinct on the part of the public to shield the most helpless during the storm? Should this happily be the case, it will be a cause for deep thankfulness long after the financial crisis is over.

Every member of the Nursery School Association will feel an obligation to take part in making clear the just position of little children in regard to the general claims for national sacrifice.

At the Annual Meeting of Education Committees, held in Scarborough, Alderman J. H. S. Aitken, in his Presidential Address spoke of Nursery Schools as follows: 'May I take this opportunity of putting in a plea for the more rapid provision of the open-air nursery school? It has been open to Authorities now for many years to make this provision, but as yet so little has been done. The value and importance of the work done by these schools cannot be exaggerated . . . it is sound economy to invest in the provision of nursery schools, and I venture to commend this branch of our work to the serious consideration of all our members.'

A new Nursery School was opened by Lady Astor at the Dockland Settlement on 16th June.

The new Nursery School at St. Werburgh's Park, Bristol, built by the Bristol Education Committee, provides for 120 children between the ages of two and five.

The new Nursery School building at Bensham Grove Settlement, Gateshead, accommodates 55 children, and is to be opened by the Hon. William and Lady Astor on 11th November.

The programme of the Education Committee for Stoke-on-Trent includes accommodation for 320 children in two nursery schools, and 320 children in eight nursery classes. This total represents approximately one fourteenth of the child population between three and five years of age.

In July the Croydon Education Committee once more turned down a definite proposal to establish a nursery school within its area.

GRACE OWEN

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Book Reviews

Voice and Personality. By T. H. Pear. (London : Chapman & Hall, Ltd. 10s. 6d. net.)

This is perhaps the best book which its author has so far produced ; it is at the same time typical of his manner, both in its defects and its points of strength. It has not the merits of a learned treatise which either scientifically classifies all its material, establishes the whole of its conclusions where no one may again dispute them, or leads the reader to accept a few clear-cut generalizations. On the other hand, it is eminently stimulating to prospective further inquirers into this new field. And it is extremely readable, by virtue of wit, lightness of touch and animadversion upon matters that are sure to be of personal interest to the reader.

Some of the conclusions, too, are based upon the results of questionnaires, ingeniously devised to sample the impressions of various types of listeners on the radio, four thousand of whom helped in the experiment on 'radio personality'.

Much attention is given to the matter of stereotypes, such as are developed by certain educational institutions, social classes, the army; and it is asked how far these may be international. The part played also by collective or individual prejudices with regard to voices is inquired into.

The effect of the book is to impress the reader with the great importance which a good voice has in human relationships. So far as it may serve to draw attention to this fact, Professor Pear's study should do much good.

Pryns Hopkins

The Guidance of Mental Growth in Infant and Child. By Arnold Gesell, Ph.D., M.D., Sc.D. (The MacMillan Company, New York. 10s.)

This book will prove a useful introduction to modern methods of studying mental growth. There is very little in it that is new, and like all books made up from previously published essays and papers, it is not very systematic. There is a good deal of overlap and a good deal of representation of material already familiar to readers of Gesell's previous volumes. But, since several of the chapters are based on expositions, to those with little knowledge of the subject, the book will be very useful for elementary students.

The various chapters have been grouped into three sections, the first of which is largely historical and comparative. Here the views and attitudes of the eighteenth century towards little children are presented, particularly the 'parental doctrines and methods' of Susannah Wesley. The concepts of child guidance accepted in the nineteenth century are illustrated by 'prints and precepts' on moral training. The 'pictorial chapter' in which the older social attitudes to little children and modern methods of child study are contrasted is both delicious and

illuminating. Nothing could show more clearly how differently we have come to look upon the problem of children's development, or demonstrate more satisfactorily the essential character of that change. If one compares, for example, the picture and poetic sermon called 'Idleness', in which a number of small boys are lounging and talking in a churchyard, with the photographs illustrating children's play in a modern guidance nursery, one realizes how far apart these two points of view are.

O you idle, thoughtless boys,
Wasting thus life's early bloom,
Throwing thus your time away,
E'en in presence of the tomb.

And yet the assumptions represented in this solemn verse are still not very far from the common attitude of parents to-day, as those of us know who are sometimes asked to give advice to mothers in difficulties. Personally, I always feel that the thing harassed mothers most need is the very change of heart shown in the contrast between these older pictures of children and the modern photographs of their play and growth. I always long to pick these mothers up and take them right outside their problem and let them look at it from an entirely fresh angle. What they themselves usually ask is a series of recipes to solve this or that particular difficulty, from moment to moment. It is not easy to persuade them to look at the problem as a whole and in the large. Yet questions of training can never be dealt with satisfactorily if approached as piecemeal moral issues. They can be understood only when they are realized to be *problems of growth*. This view of the educational problem as one of providing for optimal growth is the essential key to the modern outlook. Gesell's own work has made contributions of fundamental importance towards the detailed understanding of the course of mental growth and of the conditions that foster optimal development. The present volume will do much to make this educational outlook intelligible to ordinary parents.

In the second section on problems and methods of child guidance, there are useful chapters summarizing the known facts of stages and norms of mental growth, the concept of optimal growth, the early recognition of developmental defect, the function of the Guidance nursery, and the organization of developmental supervision. In this section one of the most interesting chapters is that on the accidental deaths of young children. The fact that 'the four young years from four to eight yield about as many automobile deaths as all the remaining years of childhood combined', obviously constitutes an educational and sociological problem of the first importance. Another valuable chapter deals with clinical guidance as applied to the problem of infant adoption.

The last section of the book consists of an elementary discussion of the problems of research in child development, of heredity and mental growth, and of the medical aspects of infant behaviour.

Susan Isaacs

On Education. By Bertrand Russell. (Allen & Unwin, London. 3s. 6d.)

It is a great tribute, if a somewhat backhanded compliment, to a writer and thinker, that a radical work of six years ago should now appear merely as an excellent statement of accepted practice. This has happened with both Shaw and Wells in our generation; their present critics only testify to the revolution in thought on social problems which these two men have, more than any other individuals, brought about. The same thing strikes one in re-reading *On Education*, now in a cheap handy edition with cardboard covers; the number of impressions the book has gone through shows the extent to which it has become a classic for progressive educationalists. How good it all is, and how few people in even the most traditional of schools would now quarrel with it!

It is the characteristic of a real reformer that his thought does not stop short at immediate reforms. What Bertrand Russell says about the intelligent treatment of young children, about sex education, punishment, curricula, may be found now in many books, and, thanks to him and others, in many schools and homes. What makes his book still valuable is that he is first and foremost a philosopher, that is, his practice is no more than the reflection of a sense of primary values. It is this clarity on essentials, this discriminating of the important from the only secondarily important that makes his book as stimulating as ever, since it points to further lines of progress. 'I hold', he says, 'that love and knowledge are the two main requisites to right action.' Again, 'the essence of what is "useful" is that it ministers to some result which is not merely useful'. 'Knowledge which is imparted should be imparted for an intellectual purpose, not to prove some moral or political conclusion.' This is bedrock, and by these standards we have a long way yet to go. Too much of our teaching is still biased, *ad hoc*; we are, on the whole, not getting as *accurate* results as did the schools of twenty years ago; we are confused and frequently narrow on this question of useful knowledge; affection, the elimination of fear, the building up of confidence, we are much better on these things and consciously so, but not all teachers would yet be prepared to maintain them for the *fundamental* considerations that they are. If therefore this book contained nothing more than a score of such remarks as those quoted above, 3s. 6d. would seem a small expenditure for any

teacher to have a source of continual intellectual stimulus on his shelves—or, better still, at his bedside.

J. N. Wales

A Book of Mediæval Latin for Schools. By Helen Waddell. (Constable, London. 2s. 6d.)

From the storehouse of Mediæval Latin, Miss Waddell has made a selection which must delight the heart of schoolchild and teacher. We find here stories of saints and their animal friends, an eye-witness account of Thomas Becket's murder, portions of the Vulgate, poetry both sacred and secular showing the transition from classical metres to the more jingling modern rhymes and rhythms.

Vocabulary and heading notes are excellent, and the Latin is revised throughout so that its grammar, while retaining a mediæval simplicity, does not offend the canons of classical Latin.

J. M. P. W.

Fathers and Sons. By E. B. Castle, M.A. (University Press, London. 3s. 6d.)

Mr. Castle's book is a plea to fathers to recognize more fully their opportunities and responsibilities in regard to the character training of their sons. He deals at some length, and with a good deal of insight and understanding, with the peculiar sex difficulties and temptations of adolescence, quoting extensively from Stanley Hall's book, *Adolescence*.

The author writes both as a schoolmaster and a father, and has evidently a deep sympathy with those whom he is anxious to help. The book deals chiefly with the difficulties encountered between the ages of thirteen or fourteen and twenty, but consideration is also given to the important formative years of childhood. Mr. Castle lays great stress, too, on the importance of a right attitude towards religion, and, as he remarks in his Foreword, his ideas on this subject will probably lay him open to a good deal of criticism. In common with many other writers, he deplores the unhealthy influence on modern youth of the cheap newspaper, the erotic novel, and certain aspects of the cinema. Equally, he condemns the over-indulgent parent and the one who shirks his duty in failing to enlighten his son as to the facts of life.

Mabel Wainman

The Bookshelf

Books Reviewed in this Issue—see page 369

VOICE AND PERSONALITY

THE GUIDANCE OF MENTAL GROWTH IN INFANT AND CHILD
ON EDUCATION

A BOOK OF MEDIEVAL LATIN FOR SCHOOLS

FATHERS AND SONS

Books Received

THE MENTAL DEFECTIVE. By Richard J. A. Berry, M.D., F.R.C.S., F.R.S.E., and R. G. Gordon M.D., D.Sc., F.R.C.P.E. Kegan Paul. 8s. 6d. *A problem in Social Inefficiency.*

SOCIAL PROGRESS AND HUMAN PROGRESS. By Clarence Marsh Case, Professor of Sociology, University of Southern California. Harcourt, Brace & Co. New York. \$2.25.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF HISTORY-TEACHING. By F. Clarke, M.A., Professor of Education, McGill University. Oxford University Press. 4s. 6d. *'In the teaching of History we have been taking too much for granted'. Author's Introduction.*

SOME DESCRIPTIONS OF PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF HAWAII. Compiled and edited by Division of Research, Department of Public Instruction. Honolulu, Hawaii. \$1.25.

THE MIND IN ACTION. By A. Campbell Garnett, M.A., Litt.D. Nisbet and the Cambridge University Press. 5s. *A study of motives and values.*

The November Issue

Sir Richard Gregory

SCIENCE OUTSTRIPS MORALITY

THE CHILD'S RIGHT TO DO WRONG

FIRST STEPS IN READING

THE TEACHERS' PSYCHOLOGICAL

DIFFICULTIES. I

CLASSIFIED ADVERTISEMENTS

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

H. G. Wells as World Dictator

H. G. Wells, in a broadcast talk latterly, declared that it is the duty of every citizen to think out what he would do if he were appointed world dictator for a period of twenty years. Mr. Wells's own solution was bold and far-reaching. He would declare the world bankrupt and would establish a federal control of finance and currency, armaments and fiscal policy, and all questions that affect the welfare of the whole. He would break down national barriers as far as economics, production and distribution are concerned, dividing the world into areas of production, corn, copper, coal, and so on, though he would leave untouched the strongly individualized cultural life of each nation.

During these twenty years of dictatorship he would not only extend educational facilities for children and adults, but he would change the aim and content of education, so that at the end of his period every man and woman under forty would be educated to think in terms of world citizenship. Professor F. Clarke, in his address to the British Association, also stressed the fact that the schools are the only means at our disposal for spreading a new attitude towards modern life and its problems. Education must forestall social change, not lag behind, adapting ideas piecemeal as it does to-day. If this is granted then we must see in this present world crisis the educator's supreme opportunity. This means, however, that in order to use this opportunity wisely it is important for every teacher to think out clearly and constructively what educational changes he would wish to see if the function of the school be to prepare a new type of citizen rather than merely to ground children in factual knowledge or equip them for the economic struggle of life.

Smuts and the Philosophy of Wholeness

General Smuts, in his presidential address to the British Association, spoke of the philosophy of Holism and clearly demonstrated that the fundamental unity of all life is a proven scientific fact as well as a philosophic concept. It is useless to think purely in national terms, since modern conditions have forced upon us interdependence. Yet, just as a child develops best if firmly rooted in the home, so man develops best if firmly rooted in his own national tradition. A bad national citizen will inevitably make a bad world citizen. Somehow the man of the future will have to learn to be wholeheartedly both a nationalist and a super-nationalist.

In outlining his plan as world dictator, H. G. Wells demanded no special powers over the hearts of men but only power to make them obey. Herein we foresee the breakdown of his plan, for a great fundamental law of human life is that no permanent spiritual progress can result from the imposition of one person's will upon others. The aim of the teacher should be to create an atmosphere that will provide conditions and stimuli likely to arouse *from within* the qualities needed in the world citizen of to-day. He must give definite practice in the art of human relationships, for most of our desirable schemes of reforms break down because of the inability of individuals to co-operate.

Development of the Individual

While Holism recognizes that the basis of universal life is unity, it also realizes the importance of the part. This is an age of differentiation and specialization in individuals and in nations. It is surely no paradox to say that integrated individuals can co-operate best for the good of the whole. Modern education

seeks to develop each child at his own pace and along his own line, that he may grow up unwarped by an early sense of failure, and by hurry to adapt himself, by fair means or foul, to the demands of an adult-made society. A child who is helped to be perfectly himself will realize that his greatest happiness—his best work and his best play—cannot exclude co-operation with other children. He will be spontaneously a social being, for he will have no grudge against anyone, he will feel confident in the goodwill of his fellows, and the new education will see to it that he is given the fullest opportunity for, and training in, co-operation with them. For the realization of such an education, two things are necessary: a properly revised curriculum, and a properly adjusted teacher with a true sense of the dignity and glory of his task.

Reconstruction of the Curriculum As regards the curriculum, it must be disencumbered from some of the débris of the past, for the 'dead hand' of which we hear so much in matters of wills and testaments, has a stranglehold on current education. A child must realize the yesterday of his kind, but he must be given a chance too to face its present problems and to visualize its morrow. History can be taught as a process of evolution—a fitter theme for a child than tales of old, unhappy, far-off things. The problem of the dead languages is too polemical to be embarked on here, but we can see to it that every child learns well at least one language other than his own. He must be given a scientific basis as well as a philosophic conception of unity—but we are inclined to think that the biological sciences are best suited to the average child and that physics and chemistry can safely be left to the child with a definitely scientific bent. But above all, in all that he is taught, he must learn to seize upon the relevant—by which of course we do not mean the merely utilitarian.

Rôle of the Teacher Now as regards the teacher himself. We believe that all teachers should be trained equally and paid equally—for their value to the community lies

in their skill in handling children, in their innate gift for teaching, and our present system of remuneration sets too much store by factual knowledge. Yet, while freely admitting this, we claim something far higher for the teacher than material recognition. In ancient India the teacher was the most revered citizen, and we believe that he may come to be so regarded in the modern world. The part he should play in the re-creation of society is even more important than that of the priest, statesman or doctor.

But to be worthy of so high a rôle he must himself be free and unfettered—an adjusted personality. He must disentangle himself from fear, fear of the unknown and untried; fear of economic stresses; fear that by subordinating himself to the good of the whole he may be made to feel inferior, and worst of all, fear of the children themselves. For those who mistrust children can never help them to be trustworthy, and those who do not love them had far better have nothing to do with them. Then, too, the teacher must beware of over-specialization, in which he may lose sight of the wider issues. He must beware of pettiness, the surest stunter of growth and therefore of life itself. He must keep his health and joy of living and perhaps above all his sense of adventure.

He should bear in mind Dr. Rugg's ideal of the artist-teacher: 'It is the Man-as-Artist who is sensitive to the criterion of integrity, who is dominated by the attitude of appreciative awareness. The true craftsman is he who stresses feeling-import, who gives creative desire a place co-ordinate with intelligence. He sees man whole and in turn visualizes the nation as a multitude of integral persons. Correspondingly, it is the artist in the school who is concerned with the production of persons, not primarily with developing professional poets, painters, actors, thinkers or musicians.'

Dr. Rugg's ideal could not be imposed by any dictator, however powerful. Its realization depends upon the 'road of your longing and the quality of your soul'. But we feel very strongly that now is the time to face most squarely the duty of the educationist, whether parent, teacher or social worker, for upon its fulfilment depends the whole future of mankind.

‘Physician, Heal Thyself!’

AT the reception in the Bow Settlement held by the Misses Muriel and Doris Lester, one of the happiest and most animated groups was that of Mr. Gandhi and a bevy of children. They had a room to themselves, to which we grown-ups were not really admitted. But a stolen glance round the door showed us an absorbed and friendly gathering. It seems that Mr. Gandhi was telling them many Indo-European words, whose Indian and English forms are so similar that even a small child can grasp their likeness. He asked them what this proved, and they clamoured ‘We are all of the same breed’. . . Then he talked to them of love and non-violence, and asked after a bit which of them ‘hit back’. Some of the most truthful bellicose owned that they did, and Mr. Gandhi asked what would be a better way. ‘Try to understand’ was the answer.

After this glimpse of his dealings with children we were not surprised to learn that Mr. Gandhi believes that it is far more important for them to gain a sense of spiritual values, of love, truth and non-violence, than any factual knowledge.

It seems that in the schools with which he is connected in India, there is no punishment of any sort. Any idea of force, or corporal punishment, is of course anathema to him. But he goes much further than merely eschewing such methods.

If a child is naughty, he reasons with it, and often recommends that certain hours be spent in spinning—not as a punishment, but because the peaceful rhythmical movements at the wheel have a definitely soothing and curative effect. If he meets with persistent naughtiness in a child, Mr. Gandhi himself enters upon a fast, short or long according to the misdeed of the child, because he believes that some spiritual discord in himself or his staff must have provoked the naughtiness. Such fasting can, of course, be effective only if it is undertaken in the proper spirit, as a means of spiritual re-creation and attunement.

Whereas fasting is essentially an Eastern practice, and probably impracticable for a Western teacher, we feel that the idea that underlies it is of value for all.

Mr. Gandhi further believes in the rights of all children, not only to the material things that are necessary for their physical growth, but to love and understanding. He says that the police-guard that has been told to follow him for his protection here has needed to guard him only from too affectionate a reception; that he has seen nothing but love in the faces of the crowds that have followed him; and that the truest culture lies in just that innate simplicity and loving courtesy that he has met with everywhere in the East End.



Roof in Bow where Mr. Gandhi slept

[Reproduced by permission of the Planet News]

Science Outstrips Morality

SIR RICHARD GREGORY, BART., D.Sc., LL.D.

*Editor of 'Nature'; Emeritus Professor of Astronomy, Queen's College, London;
Writer and Lecturer on Scientific Subjects*

THE influence of science upon material progress and human comfort is understood much more commonly than is its effect upon the human mind. It is difficult for people of these times to realize the liberation of life and intellect brought about by the works of Copernicus, Galileo, Vesalius and other pioneers of scientific learning. The very foundations of belief were shaken when the earth was dethroned from the position in which presumptuous man had placed it, and was shown to be a minor member of a group of planets revolving around a sun which was itself only one of thousands of suns in stellar space.

The Holy Scriptures, together with the works of early Christian fathers and some Greek philosophers, were believed to contain the truth about all things, visible and invisible, and men used them as the final court of appeal as to what was true in Nature. When Galileo discovered the four satellites of Jupiter by means of his small telescope, the philosophers of his time would not look through the instrument to see these bodies for themselves; for, as Galileo remarked, 'These people believe there is no truth to seek in Nature, but only in the comparison of texts'. They held that the moon was perfectly spherical and absolutely smooth, and it was in vain that Galileo appealed to the evidence of observation to the contrary. The sun was supposed to be immaculate; therefore Galileo's observations of spots upon it were illusions. Contrary to philosophic teaching, two unequal masses dropped from the leaning tower of Pisa reached the base together. 'Yet', Galileo says, 'the Aristotelians, who with their own eyes saw the unequal weights strike the ground at the same instant, ascribed the effect to some unknown cause, and preferred the decision of their master to that of Nature herself.'

The principles of self-determination and self-government have been responsible since the Armistice for many political changes, but these are as nothing compared with the social effects

of the independence of scientific inquiry typified by Galileo's life and work. The right of a man to think for himself was established, and personal observation and experiment took the place of metaphysical and philosophic speculation and dogmatic assertion. The freedom of thought and action now possessed by progressive peoples are direct consequences of the work of Galileo and other scientific pioneers.

When Newton had shown that his law of gravitation was sufficient to account not only for the movements of the planets, but also for the paths of comets, it was no longer reasonable to believe that they were sent as signs or warnings to the human race. Consider the tremendous revolution involved in this substitution of permanent natural law for the conception of a world in which all events were believed to be reflections of the moods of a benign or angry God. The doctrine of daily supernatural intervention meant that men regarded themselves merely as clay in the hands of the potter, and did nothing to shape their own natural destiny. They accepted disease as an Act of God instead of cleansing their houses, and believed that all the qualities they possessed, as well as the actions they took, were determined by the positions of the planets and other celestial bodies. Every organ of the human body was supposed to have its counterpart in the sky, and when Vesalius by his dissections, and Copernicus by his doctrine, showed that there was no relationship between the human frame and the order of the universe, the ponderous super-structure of faith and pseudo-philosophy which had been built upon it fell to pieces, and a new mental world had to be reconstructed.

Instead of a few thousand stars, supposed to exist to influence the earth and affect the purposes of man, we now know there are many millions which can never be seen without telescopic aid and millions more that are not visible with any optical means. The universe has been vastly extended and the puerile ideas of past

centuries have given place to a far nobler conception of the majesty and power of the Creator. The intellectual expansion thus brought about, together with the sense of justice which resulted from the knowledge of the existence and permanence of law in Nature, profoundly influenced human thought and resulted in social changes which had the greatest civilizing effects.

Just as Copernicus deposed the earth from the position it was supposed to occupy in the universe, so Darwin placed man in a new relationship to the rest of living creatures. Indeed, the great controversy between the evolutionists and the creationists in the second half of the nineteenth century corresponded closely with that between the Copernicans and Ptolemaists three hundred years earlier. Darwin's work finally disposed of the doctrine of special creation of living creatures in their existing structures and shapes, and substituted for it the principle of progressive development throughout succeeding ages. What is true for animate nature generally is true also for man, who had thus to regard himself not as shaped once for all in a mould broken six thousand years ago, but as having branched out from an ancestral stock through the possession and survival of the distinctive characters and capacities by which he has made himself lord of creation and master of his own destiny.

It is often supposed that Darwinism leaves ethical and moral ideas out of consideration and stands only for the doctrine of 'Nature, red in tooth and claw'; but this is due to lack of understanding of the principle. Evolution embodies the idea of social ethics and makes the welfare of the community the essential purpose of the life of the creature. The view that Darwinism signifies nothing more than striving after personal or national mastery at all costs is a crude misconception of this great principle, and was repudiated alike by its founder and by Huxley, its most powerful exponent, as contrary to the best ends of civilization.

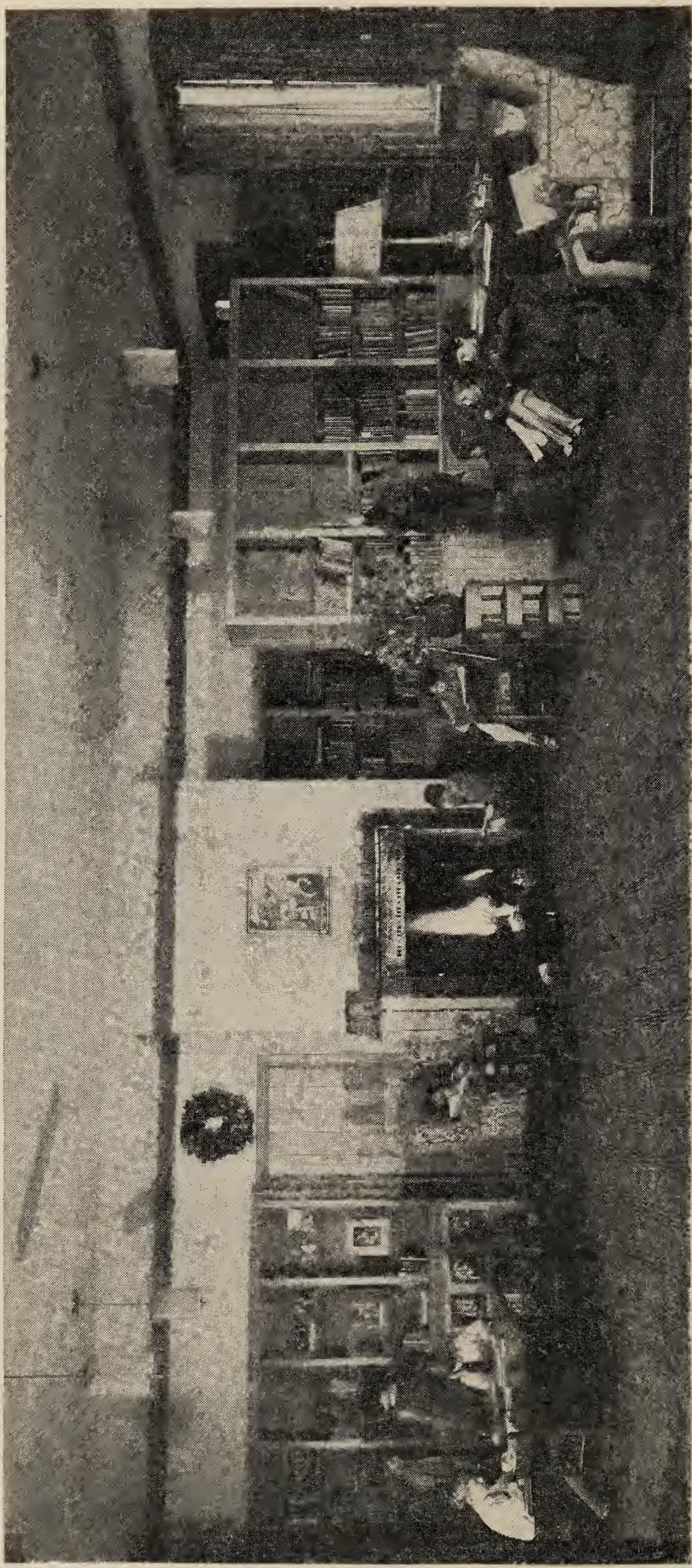
Science is concerned with the progress of knowledge and the evolution of man, not only in the past but also in the present and future. The idea that such development is possible is

relatively modern. The chief philosophers of ancient Greece held that the Golden Age was in the past and that mankind was receding from it; and the same view of human decadence is given Biblical authority in Genesis. It is quite possible that some savages have fallen from a higher to a lower level of savagery, but this is an unusual course to follow. We need not believe that man has degenerated from a state of perfect knowledge to that of being 'born in sin and shapen in iniquity', or that the recovery of his lost position must be looked for not in this world but in the next. The adoption of this depressing doctrine is opposed to evolution as a whole and subversive to all progress.

Whether we look to perfection as having been passed long ago or regard it as the promise of the future, the fact that the spirit of man is ever striving to attain it is of particular significance. There is reason for hope, when Divine discontent with life-as-it-is urges men to work for higher things. No progress is possible without aspiration, and self-satisfaction therefore signifies stagnation. Unlike the beasts of the field, man can make his own environment and so promote the development of any type which he desires to survive—poet, philosopher, profiteer, or pugilist.

If the world has not been made any happier by what science has given to it, the fault is with the human race itself and not with science. Happiness is a relative term, and no two individuals have the same cup with which to measure it. The beast in the field, or the pig in its sty, may be considered by some people as emblems of content, and if these be the standards to use, then modern man may envy the cave-dweller of prehistoric times. We cannot, however, help progress, and whether this is accompanied by increased happiness or not depends upon ourselves. We live in a beautiful world, yet how few there are who find delight in it or raise their eyes to the starry heavens above them. The gifts of God are for those to enjoy who will, and the gifts of science may likewise contribute to the uplifting of the human race if they are rightly regarded, or to its degradation if they are not.

First Steps to Freedom



A Free Period: Reading

THIS illustration comes from the Avery Coonley School, Downers Grove, Illinois. The space and beauty of the library must not discourage teachers who would like to, but cannot, afford such surroundings for their pupils. The principle underlying this free reading period is one that can be adopted in any school. It is: that the child should learn to enjoy reading for its own sake while still at school, and to recognize it as one of the finest employments for leisure hours.

It is difficult for a child to achieve this attitude to reading if he remembers the reading lesson as a time when he and his class-mates stood up in turn and read aloud a short passage from a set book. Such a practice has its uses as an exercise in elocution, but it should not be associated in the child's mind with reading. One or two special periods should be set aside each week for personal reading. The children should be allowed to browse, to lounge a little in their seats, and to find for themselves in this unconstrained atmosphere some of the quiet joys of reading.

A Teacher's Psychological Difficulties—I

Katharine L. Johnston, Principal of the Maria Grey Training College, and Headmistress of the Brondesbury and Kilburn High School

FOR the past six years it has been our good fortune at the Maria Grey Training College to enjoy each year for one term a course of lectures by Dr. Crichton Miller on topics which might, perhaps, be summed up under the title of the mental hygiene of the teacher. The writer of this article is attempting to pass on to a wider circle the lessons learned from these lectures. These are, to their disadvantage, shorn of the spontaneous sallies of a wit so free from malice that the laughter provoked could have its full therapeutic value, and they come through a medium who can never hope to possess that power of infecting others with the ideals which mean most to him which is so characteristic of Dr. Crichton Miller. But they are transmitted by one who found many an explanation of the troubles of professional lives therein, and who gratefully testifies to the contagion the lecturer diffused of adventurous living, high courage and gaiety of heart.

All human beings have three adjustments to make, the adjustment to the Infinite, the adjustment to the mate, and the adjustment to the herd. It is in failure to make these adjustments satisfactorily that teachers in common with the rest of mankind meet with disaster.

At the very outset, in the choice of this career lurks the danger of maladjustment. The motive which prompts the individual to such choice must be conscious and personal. Being a conscious motive, if it should conflict with the ethical standard of the individual the conflict is apparent to him, and is brought to an end either by the rejection of the motive, or by such lowering of the individual's accepted standards of conduct that the motive ceases to be in conflict with them. One calls to mind the Oxford don, Dr. ———, whom Gibbon has immortalized in his *Autobiography*: 'who well remembered that he had a salary to receive and only forgot that he had a duty to perform', or the slangy young dame whom I overheard replying to the question as to whether she liked teaching: 'I hate the kids, but I love the dibs'. Both individuals were actuated by low motives, but since

these were conscious and in harmony with their ethical standards there was no maladjustment.

Human beings can, however, be actuated by unconscious motives. I have known a teacher with very high ideals of loyal and devoted service to mankind. To outward seeming she should have been the most happy and beneficent influence on the staff. But desperate seeking for position and place, tyranny over every member of the staff who could by any means be deemed to be junior to her, unhappiness, ill-health were her characteristics. Closer study revealed this as a case of an unconscious motive, the urge to power. Such a motive was a direct contradiction of the ideals which she consciously adopted; but since she was unconscious of it, the conflict between the two was never resolved, and hence the maladjustment.

Dr. Crichton Miller is of the opinion that the urge to power is less often the motive of the woman than of the man in entering the teaching profession, but his sex are not unanimous on the point, as the following anecdote shows: A member of my staff was trying out an experiment in the teaching of history with a class. The lesson had been on Margaret of Anjou, and in summing up the character of her subject the teacher said 'Margaret loved power'. A small boy of eight years remarked with gravity: 'All women love power.'

There is, I find, a widespread opinion that it is in respect of the adjustment to the mate that teachers fail most frequently, and a general tendency to ascribe all such failure to our methods of educating teachers after the secondary school stage, by segregating the sexes. But until we have some figures for comparison from other occupations we must be careful not to dogmatize on the first point, and as to the second I have before me the case of a woman of forty, a teacher who had risen high in her profession, but who, under analysis was found to be in respect of emotional development a child of three. Yet she had been educated in a mixed College, had taken no mean part in the social life thereof, and carried away with her most

happy memories. She had also been a successful member of a mixed staff.

Cases such as this warn us against the assumption that co-education during the years of professional training will ensure adjustment to the mate.

The possibility of such adjustment, potential or actual, has been decided slowly but surely throughout the early education of the boy or girl. First there is the important factor of sex training. I am one of those who think that this is best given by the parents as the individual child needs it, and for this reason I have arranged courses of lectures by doctors to the parents on the need of such training, and on ways of giving it. Yet in spite of this the following incident occurred. A young English mistress was taking an oral composition lesson with a class of nine-year-olds. Each child had been asked to bring a short speech dealing with a subject of interest. X, being called upon to begin, rose and said: 'My dear friends, I am going to speak to you about babies. Babies when they are very young are carried in the bodies of their mothers.' The teacher, not sure of what was to follow, thanked X for the speech and said she would postpone the rest of it for the moment, and calling X to sit beside her, said to the class 'I have postponed X's speech because, though she was dealing with a matter in which we all take interest, it is not one which we usually discuss in public.' Whereupon another child said: 'Oh, but I don't know how babies come, and I do want to know.' The teacher replied: 'If you wish to know, I will tell you, but in private, as I have just told you that we do not discuss such questions in a public assembly such as this.' Others joined in the request, and the same reply was made to them.

The lesson over, a very anxious mistress appeared in my office to report the incident, and asked what she should do if the children demanded the information. I replied that she should keep her promise, but appoint the time for the interview so that it allowed for the dispatch of a note to the mother of each inquirer, telling her of the incident and asking whether she would wish the teacher to give the information sought, or whether she desired to give it herself. Two children claimed the fulfilment of the promise, and to the notes sent to the

mothers I added a postscript to the effect that we always advised that children's questions on this subject, and on others relating to sex, should be answered truthfully and adequately. One replied that she wished to tell her little daughter herself, the other regretted the necessity, as she thought her child too young to know, but asked that the teacher should inform her. This was done.

A month or so later a telephone message was received asking me to reserve a time for the visit of a friend of the school and of influence and standing in the newspaper world, on a matter of the utmost urgency. I was informed that my action in notifying parents that sex instruction would be given in the school had inspired an article which was to appear in the week-end papers, and which was not calculated to enhance the reputation of the school. On my denial of any such action on my part, my informant gave me such details that the incident I have described was recognizable. Needless to say the article was not published when the true facts of the case were made known, but the whole affair seemed to me indicative of silent but determined opposition by parents and general public to sex instruction. If this is so, we cannot assume that any individual who aspires to enter the teaching profession has been rightly instructed and takes a healthy attitude towards sex. Yet without such instruction and without such an attitude adjustment to the mate is impossible.

Another necessary factor in adjustment to the mate is that of emotional development. Readers of Dr. Crichton Miller's 'The New Psychology and the Teacher' will remember the four phases of normal development. Normally two of these phases in each sex should have passed, and the third be well on the way, perhaps even over, before the aspirant to the teaching profession enters the Training College. This being so, it seems clear that to ensure normal development the most necessary thing is to educate parents for parenthood. Where the parents have created the right conditions in the home, the education of the girl (I cannot speak of the boy, because I have no experience) at a College for women only has no deleterious effect on emotional development.

The study of emotional development led, in the discussions which the course of lectures

never failed to arouse, to the question of healthy and unhealthy friendship between members of the same sex. The subject was not one with which our lecturer dealt except in answer to a direct question, so that what I am about to say on this matter springs from my experience of twenty-nine years of teaching in various types of educational establishments, the majority of them staffed almost entirely by women. In the course of that experience I have come to the conclusion that these unhealthy friendships are very rarely a method of satisfying the mating impulse, but spring out of the strong maternal impulse in some women. To satisfy this in the relationship with one's pupils is arduous. But there are other members of staff less well endowed with nature's gifts of strength and health, and one of these so 'mothered' offers the companionship of a keen and alert mind, the possibility of recreations shared, and the warm affection of a grateful adult. I am not sure that the individual who 'mothers' comes to any harm, but the individual who is 'mothered' does. Adult independence gives way to childish dependence, and we have the phenomenon of regression. In these cases it seems impossible to replace the old relation by a new one of independence, and still preserve friendship. Yet the total severance of all ties is a lasting and paralyzing grief to the 'child' at least.

Finally, we come to the question of adjustment to the herd. The great danger for the teacher is the acquirement of an attitude of patronage, becoming, in short, what is known as a 'school marm'. My friends tell me that men teachers show less of this than women teachers. Justice demands that it be pointed out that such an attitude is often attributed where it really does not exist. If one spends more than three-quarters of the year helping others to acquire a good pronunciation of a foreign tongue, one finds oneself in society offering the same help with no motive but that of kindness. Some adults, however, resent extremely being taught anything. Ultimately the blame for such an attitude on the part of those who once were

pupils of teachers must rest on their teachers. We, or our predecessors have failed to infect them with the love of learning. But as modern psychology shows us more and more the value and importance of the study of individual differences, and as the newer teaching methods are more widely adopted, it would seem that the teacher, if he is to be successful, cannot adopt the attitude of patronage. To refrain from interference, to become the guide, the counsellor, the friend of our pupils, and not the preceptor, demands the greatest respect and reverence for the individuality of others. With the attainment of such an attitude, adjustment to the herd has been made. The individual imbued with this spirit is able to co-operate with others as one among many contributing to the common task.

December Issue

NORMAN ANGEL

AN APPROACH TO
ECONOMICS

THE CHILD'S RIGHT TO
DO WRONG

A TEACHER'S PSYCHO-
LOGICAL DIFFICULTIES—II

WHY CHILDREN ANNOY
GROWN-UPS

Some Reading Experiences—I

Bronxville, New York

The second half of this article will be published next month. It has been compiled by teachers at the Bronxville Public School, New York, with an introduction and general supervision by Dr. Mary Reed, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York

THERE is no specific reading method which would represent *the* method of teaching reading in the primary schools of the United States to-day. There is, however, a philosophy of education, a psychology of the learning process and there are the findings of research in reading, all of which are guiding teachers and the writers of textbooks in their attack on the problems of developing children through reading experiences.

The primary schools in the States were first organized as reading schools. The history of reading method shows epochs in which the alphabet method, the phonetic method, the word method, the sentence method or combinations of these methods dominated a teacher's technique in her endeavour to *make* children read. This curriculum of reading in the primary schools has changed.

The philosophy of education generally accepted by teachers in the States to-day stresses the importance of educational activities in a medium where things have social uses. It is generally believed that the more closely and directly the child learns by entering into social situations, the more effective is the knowledge he gains. The method of the teacher then is one of creating a social environment in which children engage in the activities of social life. The teacher's first concern in building a reading curriculum is to create an environment which will stimulate vital social activity, the second is to discover the reading situations which may meet the social needs of children. Reading is thus a part of an integrated curriculum and becomes a part of the child's social living.

It is generally considered good psychology to give children actual reading experiences when their other social experiences create a readiness for reading. The teacher's job is to bring each child to this state of readiness, or to discover by means of diagnostic procedures the possible reading disabilities which are interfering with

his readiness for reading. A desire for reading may come earlier in one child's school experiences than in the experiences of another.

In the nursery school and kindergarten, ages two to six, children go to books for enjoyment and for information which the pictures furnish. They also acquire a real love of literature and a great amount of information from stories read and told to them. They do not usually engage in activities which require reading symbols. The meanings which they gain, however, through the other social activities definitely contribute to the actual reading experiences in the primary grades.

In the reading technique discussed in this paper by the teachers of Bronxville Public School the reader will notice that in the child's earliest reading experiences he learns to read by *reading*, not by learning the alphabet nor by learning certain phonetic elements, nor by learning words or sentences isolated from other social experiences. The reading symbols represent an experience which has meaning to the particular group of children reading.

Careful planning to give children the needed repetition of words will be evident in the reading activities discussed by the Bronxville teachers. The content for the children's reading comes from their needs as a result of their living together. The teacher, however, assumes responsibility for adapting the sentence structure to the specific abilities of the children concerned, so that correct eye movement habits will be formed and each child may feel the joy of accomplishment and achievement.

The individual differences of children are being more and more respected by teachers and administrators in their aim to develop children through experiences suitable to their social, physical, and intellectual abilities. Social and physical needs, the intelligence quotient, the mental age, the emotional stability, the specific interests are all considered important factors in



Studying the Sheep in the Central Park

planning an environment for the child's development through reading experiences.

A philosophy of education, a psychology of the learning process and a knowledge of the findings of research studies in reading will be found operating in the discussion of reading activities offered in this paper by the teachers of Bronxville Public School. They give not *the* method of teaching reading in the States but *a* way they have used in helping these particular children develop through worthwhile experiences.*

APPROACHING READING IN KINDERGARTEN

We are concerned with the degree of comprehension and wealth of common meanings which a child takes to a reading situation. These are of paramount importance. We believe that comprehension and meanings can best be gained

through an environment which offers rich and varied experiences related to a child's interests and capacities and in which he feels the need of reading as a basically related tool. As children in the kindergarten advance, they begin to make reading a part of their purposeful activities.

However, we must guard against forcing this interest. Studies of this problem lead us to view critically any approach to reading. Dr. Lewis Terman has proved through his research work that much of the failure in reading is due to mental immaturity. He gives a mental age of six or six and a half as the standard for advancement into reading situations. Many authorities concede that children learn more readily, develop better attitudes and make more rapid progress, if we but wait for evidences of reading interests.

If we provide an environment rich in content, two paths are opened whereby we may motivate interest in reading and discover whether or not the child has attained reading readiness. The first path is through impressive experiences. He enlarges word meanings through satisfying a natural interest in events, materials he uses, and people with whom he comes in contact. Through investigation he learns the what, how,

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Each one was eager to have his questions answered

and why of things. Thus children gain word meanings, rather than mere power to pronounce.

The second path offers expressive experiences when words become meaningful as he uses them in communicating ideas, thoughts, and feelings. Opportunities are provided for the reproduction and creation of stories, dramatization, and the enjoyment of literature.

Although we place emphasis on experiences which help children develop and acquire control in their social, emotional, physical, and mental growth, there are times when we must satisfy their interests and desires for actual participation in reading. Often this interest appears when least expected, as was the case at the close of the last school year, when a small group, working on a flower shop interest, guided us into a reading situation.

The shop which a small group of boys constructed from blocks, drew the interest of others in the class, who were eager to contribute. Stands and trellises were constructed from wood; small flower pots were painted bright colours and seeds planted in them; paper flowers, hanging baskets, and window boxes

gave the little shop a gay appearance. A trip to the florist stimulated new ideas, among them a need for a name. From the names suggested 'Bronxville Flower Shop' was chosen; a large sign was printed and nailed over the door. This aroused intense interest. Labels announcing names of flowers and prices were also made.

A visit to a greenhouse fostered additional ideas. Knowledge was increased concerning the care of plants and flowers, how a flower shop is supplied and the finding of flowers and names which were new to them. The recalled experiences were printed in chart form and frequently the children referred to it, seemingly as a means of satisfying their immediate interest.

Following this experience other evidences of readiness to read appeared, such as the desire to recognize their own names as well as the names of others, desire to know the name of day and date; increased interest in associating objects and names; interest in composing a thank you letter which was sent to the florist and greenhouse, and the great interest—that of books.

READING BEFORE BOOKS

The first grade teacher soon discovered that the art of teaching reading does not lie alone in

the skilful manipulation of materials, but that it lies as much in studying each child individually and in early detecting that specific limitation which may be impeding his progress. The obstruction may be a lack of confidence in attacking any new problem; it may be confusion resulting from parental pressure; it may be due to an overstimulating programme outside of school, as in the case of the bright five-year-old who was taking music, French, and dancing lessons in addition to his school work. Sometimes the approach to reading is delayed by an excessive amount of entertainment through reading in the home.

Definite and persistent effort is made to overcome these individual difficulties in order to help establish a desirable attitude toward reading. The utilization of materials which are based upon the everyday needs and interests of the group immediately give reading a place in the child's experience.

While working with these materials the teacher endeavours to see that each child is becoming a self-reliant member of the group and is gaining in ability to work with others. Upon entering first grade, the child feels a certain independence in owning his materials. He learns to recognize his name by labelling his locker, cloakroom space, his table and chair, and various individual art materials.

He reads necessary notes, bulletins and notices. He formulates and reads individual and group plans which express a wide range of interests. He is encouraged to identify reading with his own creation by dictating headings to accompany his original illustrations. The original units are often assembled into booklets. He gradually accepts the fact that reading enables him to interpret his relationships more intelligently—those relationships within his immediate group, within the school, and within the community. The following account of a social science problem in a beginning first grade class illustrates the fact that reading can help to clarify and strengthen the meaning of relationships.

A group of children was being led to a more intelligent appreciation of a large park. Plans were made to take several trips to the park in order to study specific features of this com-

munity centre. The following note was read, taken home by the children and returned properly signed:

We want to go to Central Park.
We want to go Monday.
We will go at 10 o'clock.

I can go. _____

I cannot go. _____

For Mother
I can bring my car. _____

I cannot bring my car. _____

The vitality of this kind of reading called forth remarks such as these, 'I guess everyone wants to know which is the line that says "I can go"'. 'Don't you wish everyone could sign the good line?' 'I don't like that "cannot" word.' 'I'm glad my mother will let me go.' 'I know where she'll let me write my name.' The symbol was full of meaning in this situation and the reaction was genuine. Each child was eager to read his note as it was returned and the vocabulary was naturally reviewed.

The notes revealed the number of cars which were available and plans for transportation were completed. Charts were made which read:

Who will go	Who will go
with John's mother?	with Mary's mother?

The children wrote their names on these charts.

The day of the excursion arrived with an appropriate notice on the blackboard:

To-day is Monday.
We want to go to Central Park.
We want to see the sheep.
We want to see the shepherd.
We can go to-day.
We cannot go to-day.

The weather determined which of the last two sentences could be checked as true. Notices like this receive the closest kind of examination as soon as the children enter the room.

Definite information was to be gathered about the sheep during this trip, so before starting the children helped to formulate questions which they wished to ask the shepherd.

Does it hurt the sheep to have the wool
cut off?

How do you cut off the wool?

When do you cut off the wool?

What do you do with all the wool?

Can you talk to your sheep?

These questions were read and individuals were made responsible for bringing back the answers. Upon returning from the trip the questions were re-read and checked as they were answered.

One small boy who became most enthusiastic over his new experience began to sing a song on the way home.

We went to the park
to see the sheep
to see the sheep
to see the sheep.

A narrative of the trip in song form was encouraged. Each verse was recorded by the teacher on the blackboard as it was dictated. Then it was reproduced on oak tag with India ink and a round nib pen. After it had been studied from the chart each child was given a copy which has been typed on a typewriter with primer sized type. A few of the verses will illustrate the child-like repetition so natural at this stage of development.

We went to the park	My woolly lamb likes
to see the sheep	fresh green grass
to see the sheep	fresh green grass
to see the sheep	fresh green grass
We went to the park	My woolly lamb likes
to see the sheep	fresh green grass
So early Monday	Upon the shady hillside.
morning.	

This song read and illustrated by the children and placed in an attractive cover of original design was carried about in a companionable fashion and was read and sung repeatedly for the enjoyment of the authors, for mothers and fathers, for friends, for anyone who would listen.

Snapshots were taken of the children while they were feeding the sheep. Each child chose one picture for his booklet, so he helped to place his order by learning to read

I want

a sheep picture.

I want

a shepherd picture.

He wrote his name on the chart which indicated

his choice and the order was filled according to the record made.

Large easel paintings with descriptive statements helped to clarify conceptions gained during the trip. The statements accompanying the pictures were direct and short.

This is the mounted police.

We fed the sheep.

We fed the pigeons.

This is the funny lawn mower.

As the children re-lived their experience they were eager to share it with another group. They made riddles about the points of interest in the park. These served as part of the programme for their guests.

I cut, cut, cut.	I have a big fuzzy tail.
I cut down grass.	I sleep in a tree.
I cut down weeds.	I scamper from tree to tree.
Cut, cut, cut.	I eat nuts.
	What am I?

To the great delight of the children the teacher added her riddle.

I can mow the lawn.

I can sing a song.

When the cold wind blows

I give you warm clothes.

Many wanted to be chosen to serve as chairman when the guests were present, but one important qualification of the chairman was the ability to read the programme. Each one did his best to meet the requirement. Some wanted to take the programme home to study it. The programme was recorded in simple terms.

Rachel will tell about Central Park.

We will read some riddles.

Dolly will tell about the tapestry.

Jane and Jean will tell about the pictures.

Arthur will tell you about the song books.

We will tell you

about the sheep and the shepherd.

In this unit of work which has been described there is evidence that the children are bound to accept the printed symbol as full of meaning. Comprehension is constantly being checked in a vital way. Vocabulary is acquired through context rather than through rote learning. This type of approach enables the child to accept reading as a thinking process and to develop a desirable attitude toward it.

The London Girl at School

EVELYN SHARP

Author of 'The London Child', 'The Child Grows Up', 'Hertha Ayrton', 'Here We Go Round', and others

THE keynote to the aims of the large junior girls' elementary school that I visited in the East End of London, last summer, is struck in the entrance hall, where the prefect on duty for the day receives the visitor so charmingly that one is not surprised to learn later that the three basic principles on which this school is run are kindness, courtesy and speech training; for good manners, in which one should include a pleasing voice and way of speaking, are not learnt in a day, and certainly never by rote.

The headmistress here believes strongly in the prefect system, even for girls under eleven, which is the age limit in her school; though she is careful to point out that her prefects, of whom there are fifteen, have no power over the other girls, nor would she approve of this power being given to such young children. Except for the one day in fifteen when the prefect brings her school work into the hall and is on duty till everybody goes home at 4.30, her occupation consists only in maintaining tidiness, and in performing small duties in connection with the daily routine. In this way she learns to take pleasure in service and acquires a corporate sense.

As in most elementary schools situated in the heart of a great city, the majority of the girls here come from homes in which the daily struggle to live makes it difficult for parents to indulge in teaching them the graces of life. By co-operating with the parents whenever possible, the headmistress pursues her main purpose, which is to make of her school a little world in miniature. The list of simple rules that every girl must keep is sent to all parents on their child's admission to the school. On the whole the rules are kept, certainly by the older girls who have come to realize their reasonableness. When one is broken, the offender loses an order mark, and ten order marks mean a black star. This means that your name appears on the black list that hangs in the hall for a whole year.

On the other hand, ten honour marks, gained for all kinds of good deeds, mean a gold star and a place on the gold list hung in the same prominent place. And as every class is divided equally into four 'houses', distinguished by badges in four colours, it naturally becomes the ambition of each house throughout the school to carry off the greatest number of honours in the way of gold stars, scholarships, and athletic successes. It must therefore add considerably to the dejection of a girl who has been given a black star to feel that she has disgraced her house all through the school.

On these methods of reasonable emulation the headmistress relies in the pursuance of her educational aims. 'I think a child should know the reason for doing or not doing things', she said, 'and not find out a mistake by being punished for it. If I have to punish a girl further than by giving her an order mark my system has failed. I suppose I should then take away her privileges, for I don't believe under any circumstances in corporal punishment. As a matter of fact the system doesn't fail; we now and again get our problem child, naturally, but this generally means a bad home in the background which has to be counteracted. And you must remember that one bad, that is anti-social, girl in a class can hardly do much to influence forty-three others, whereas the forty-three others can do a lot to make her realize that it is pleasanter to be a corporate member of society than to be left out.'

There are nine classes in this school, Classes 9 and 8 both representing the lowest standard, in which all the seven-year-old girls are placed for a year 'in order to find themselves'. Similarly, while Classes 1 and 2 are both equal to the highest standard, and are both called the top class, Class 1 contains the picked girls. By allowing for an age-spread of two years in the higher classes, where differences in mentality are more marked than among the very young children, it is considered possible in this school

to avoid placing the quick and the slow children in separate classes, for the latter can by this method work side by side with their equals, the bright children who are a year younger.

As far as could be seen in one visit, the work in all the classes was calculated to encourage individual effort, so far as this is possible under the usual method of class teaching in an elementary school. When, for instance, having heard the story of Hector and Paris, a class is told to write down a summary of it, the girls are urged to do this in their own words. In Classes 8 and 9, where the age is only seven-eight, the composition is called a story, and the children are asked to reproduce it as if they were 'telling it to a little brother', and, when they find that words fail them, to tell it in pictures, which is naturally a popular alternative though not always more explicit.

Undeterred by the sound of a sawmill outside, the teacher of Class 6 had cleverly divided the quicker and slower girls into two groups, and was using rather different methods for each group in giving one of her series of lessons on 'The Homes of Other Nations'. There was much scope here for illustrations in note-books; and although the exceptional child never seems to me of much concern to the education reformer, because it can take care of itself, I do hope that the remarkable talent for drawing shown by one eight-year-old child in this class will survive her ultimate entry into industry. Some time is allowed for free reading every week, and an

interesting plan obtains by which each girl compiles an anthology of poems and prose passages, all copied out by herself in her exercise book and sometimes in very beautiful script.

The formation of individual taste is further encouraged in the older girls by attendance at lectures given in the local public library. This is one way in which the girls learn while at school to lay the foundations of a cultured leisure in the future. Another way is by means of handwork. Even the babies of the Junior School in Class 9, mainly learning how to hold their needle correctly and to resist pushing it with the first finger—so much easier that I never quite know why we have to unlearn the impulse!—are helped over the drudgery of the process by being allowed to practise on miniature samplers with wools of the brightest colours.

The most interesting feature in the top classes happened to be the voice production class, the day I was there, from which I was able to gather how it is that these girls speak so pleasantly to a visitor and, when they sing in unison, do not seek to drown their neighbours but rather to harmonize with them.

It is inspiring to discover gleams of true education in surroundings such as these, for to these children the education they receive in the elementary school is often the only glimpse of culture they get in the whole of their lives, unless it is given them in such a way as to make them think it worth fighting for after they leave school.

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Habits and the Pre-School Child

MARIA B. TE WATER, M.A., M.B., Ch.B.

IT is the consensus of opinion to-day, that the most important service that we can render the young child is to help him form correct habits, habits that will help him to fit into the general everyday life with the greatest ease and happiness, whether it be in the home, the school, or later in his occupational or professional group. In all these groups he will have to meet and deal with all kinds of diverse situations daily. Happiness is dependent on many things it has been said; can it not be stated very simply by saying that happiness depends upon the way of thinking about things, the way of feeling about things, and the way of doing things? Do these words, 'the way of thinking, feeling and doing', not suggest at once a 'certain way' or 'habit' of doing them?

What is a habit? It is a definite way of reacting to anything that happens. We cannot hear, see or feel anything without responding in some way. We hear something and we are pleased or annoyed.

We see something and we are drawn to it or we are repelled by it. The way we react to any experience the second time depends upon how we responded to it the first time and what feelings have become connected with it.

In the case of the child it is somewhat different. There are so many 'first times', for there always must be a 'first time'. Little Mary when she first sees a little black curly-haired dog, puts out her hand to play with it, and may even pull its hair. If the dog stands quietly and allows her to play contentedly with him, curly-haired black dogs will be considered real fun. If, instead of allowing her to play with him, the dog had barked loudly or snapped at her, and in this way caused her to be afraid, we shall find that the next time she sees one she will clutch her mother's dress, begin to cry or run away terrified.

Our example illustrates in the first place a response on the part of the child to something she has seen and secondly we get some indication of how she will act upon another similar occasion.

Looked at in this way, habit is something more than just a manner of dress or speech or punctuality. The psychologist uses the term in this comprehensive sense. It includes everything that the child or person does that he

was not able to do at birth. The child is not born with habits but with the capacity of forming them, and he begins to form them soon after he is born. Habits include the very simple things the child does, such as going to sleep or eating, as well as the more complex ones such as learning to manipulate all kinds of toys, doing work, running about and playing games.

The first time an act is performed by a child it is not an isolated happening that will not be repeated, but the first of a series of actions. Every act

has a definite meaning and possesses a definite value. The baby who has never been lifted by the mother when he or she starts to cry soon tries in some other way to get the desired attention. No child will persist in fussing about his food if he has never found himself the centre of attention because of his likes or dislikes.

Where does the child learn to attach the first meanings to his actions? Where does the child practice daily, hourly those actions, some new and fascinating, some bringing praise and laughter, others only blame and sorrow? Where but in the home in which he lives?

In the home he learns how to 'act' or, to use the more popular word, 'behave'. The behaviour of a child is the sum of his actions at any given moment of the day. Whether they are simple or complex depends on the age and



experience of the child but all are accompanied by a certain amount of feeling.

Little Dick alone on the bed kicking his toes in the air is illustrating what is meant by behaviour, quite as much as John with his quick toss of the head, and scowl when he is called away from a beloved toy to go on a message—or the happy smiling response of Dick to his Dad's remark: 'Come on, let's get into the auto and go to the beach for a swim!'

Dr. Bird Baldwin has said 'The early influence that operates on the child in its early years has probably given a permanent set to its character and disposition by the time it is two years of age'. A statement such as this from a man who has spent many years studying children clearly indicates the importance of early habit formation. Dr. Smiley Blanton, Director of the Child Guidance Clinic of Minnesota, has pointed out the importance of certain definite habits being taught the child during certain years. He says 'A large part of the disciplinary problems of the years between five and nine is concerned with those things that should have been learned before the age of five'. The average

healthy child should be dry all night by the age of three. How often, however, are children varying in ages from six to nine taken to clinics for treatment because of bedwetting. How many of these children try to buy the goodwill of the other children, who persist in taunting them with this baby habit, by taking money from their parents, or anywhere they can get it.

Does not the old adage 'An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure' apply very aptly here? Is it not the duty of all who are responsible for the training of very young children to take stock of the whole situation and ask themselves the following questions:—Am I allowing my child to do certain things to-day that I know he should not persist in doing? Do I know what I want him to learn, or do I bewilder him by trying to teach him too many things at the same time? Do I realize that in order to form any habit it must always be done in the same way not once but a hundred times if necessary, and in no other way? Have I ever thought how my own type of habit formation may stand in the way of my child learning the value of the very habit I am trying to teach him?



The World of a Child

PEOPLE who have anything to do with children realize that they regard the external world in quite a different light from an adult. This is partly because the spirit of exploration is usually so much less quick a thing in a grown-up. Even when a child is familiar with a moving staircase, he still finds in it a test of valour and an occasion for high adventure. The Psychological Institute at Hamburg has been investigating, in a very living way, the child's reaction to the external world, and Dr. Martha Muchow gave an account of their findings before the Conference of the German section of the N.E.F. at Dortmund this October.

She told of observations made upon the behaviour of elementary school children of various ages in a certain departmental store in Hamburg. For the child under ten, the store is an endless field of exploration. It offers small children scope for great ingenuity. First they have to get past the suspicious watchfulness of the doorkeeper, and very ingenious are their methods of doing this. If they are sent on some real errand, however small, they can spin out this pretext to cover hours of exploration. Without such an excuse, they have either to pretend to be going to buy something or to attach themselves unobtrusively to some unknown grown-up and so get in as though under his conscious protection. Once inside they are reasonably immune from interference so long as they are fairly discreet in their racing downstairs, their rides in the lifts and slides down the banisters. The fact that there is a floor-walker to be dodged will keep up a vague sense of terror that enhances the pleasure of the adventure. Rather older children who have already developed the collecting habit with their tram-tickets and cigarette-cards can add gloriously to their collections in the store. There are free samples and coloured leaflets of every description, all of which must be asked for, or taken, with enough aplomb to pass muster with the attendant. There are even free samples of various foods to be had, but it's a bold child who can capture one of these. Girls from thirteen or fourteen onwards use the store consciously as a

place where they can play at being grown-up. One observer from the Institute watched a group of such girls planning what they would need for a trip to Italy, with so much thoroughness that it took her many minutes to realize that the whole thing was only a game.

Dr. Muchow gave another strange example of a child's reaction to a grown-up world. A boy whose parents were unemployed came up before the Children's Court for some reason and asked hopefully, 'When are you going to give me my money?' This was a quite sensible reaction to finding himself in a State office, for he knew that his parents queued up every week in much such an office to draw the 'dole'.

The Institute has also been investigating in a very sympathetic spirit the effect of overcrowding on city children. They watched children playing in a sandpit in a public park that had been specially prepared for them. The sandpit was so crowded that no child had a chance to build anything complete. There could be no thought of making a castle or tunnel or something in which a group could sit and pretend to be in a train. There simply was not room for the accomplishment of any such scheme and the result was that all of them just kicked the sand about—not out of wantonness, but because it was hopeless to try to do anything more constructive. In the same way, two or three boys, whose only playground was a crowded thoroughfare where they had no chance to play any sensible game, but were jostled endlessly by grown-ups, were seen to notice some chocolate in an automatic machine which by great dexterity could be got out without inserting a coin. They started extracting it, out of sheer boredom rather than from an original intent to pilfer.

Dr. Muchow gave other examples, all of which tended to show how the child's world is quite other than the adult's, and that he uses it for quite other adventures. The child's world is not a static but a dynamic thing, which he is creating about him all the time.

At the Nice Conference it is hoped that Dr. Muchow will give a paper on 'The World of the Child—a Problem for the Teacher.'

On Learning French

WHY do we English pride ourselves upon our inability to speak any language but our own? The Scots on the contrary have boasted, among other things, of their historic associations with France, and a Scotsman's French and German pronunciation is usually inoffensive and sometimes very fine. The American, too, though usually unmistakably himself, can often make himself unmistakably understood on the Continent—and that for a very good and modern reason; because he wants to get the other man's point of view and give his own in exchange. That is, of course, the only sensible reason for learning to speak a foreign language. You may learn to read it as a grammarian or a philologist or a historian or technician or a lover of literature, but you will learn to speak it as a human being, with a desire to enlarge your human contacts.

We are urging all those who hope to be present at the Nice Conference to rub up their French if it be rusty, and to acquire a vocabulary of foreign technical, educational and psychological terms if these are strange to them. This is not strictly speaking necessary for a full understanding of the business of the Conference, where the three official languages will be English, French and German, and where *précis* translations of all the most important papers will be given. And, of course, in Nice itself all your wants can be made known in English—indeed, however well you may speak French, a self-respecting *maître d'hôtel* will see to it that you are given no chance of practising this accomplishment in *his* presence.

On the other hand, armed with English and French one should be able to exchange ideas, difficulties and hopes with any member of the Conference, from any part of the world, and also get vastly more amusement out of the ordinary incidents of everyday life.

As regards the best means of acquiring or re-acquiring a working knowledge of a language, it is often assumed that this is almost impossible

to do outside the country itself. This was probably true enough in the days of the old methods. It is quite untrue to-day. If the right method is chosen even an absolute beginner can learn to speak French with a considerable degree of fluency, with no outside help whatever. Self-tuition courses can be had quite cheaply, and judging by results they are thoroughly reliable. And those who are not beginners but who desire to revive or 're-acquire' their French can have a course graded to suit their special needs.

For those who feel the need of special ear-training the gramophone is a very useful supplementary aid, but care should be taken to select records which give sustained natural conversations on everyday topics. We should like, however, to give a word of warning regarding the use of gramophone records. While these are certainly of value in some cases, the impossible should not be expected. If you are fairly advanced and have kept in touch with your French to a reasonable extent, by all means seek the help of the gramophone. But if you are 'rusty' it is courting disaster to try to recover lost ground in this way. Your difficulties can be much more easily overcome by some rationally graded exercises in the written language which will gradually cover both a fairly wide vocabulary and the main rules of grammar. To be effective, such a course must be linguistically sound, the examples given must be both idiomatic and simple. It must also be psychologically sound, the exercises must run on logically from one to another, each giving a certain amount of practice in what has gone before, and a certain amount of new material on a basis of what is already known.

In conclusion we would like to add that there is nothing boring about language learning. By modern methods the whole thing is an intriguing process, and as amusing an employment for dark evenings as any other. If you don't believe it, just try !

The Revision of School Text-Books

A Correspondent from Geneva

DURING the last twelve years it has become almost a fashion at international gatherings to pass resolutions urging a reform of text-books in use in the schools of the world with a view to facilitating mutual understanding and *rapprochement* between peoples. It goes without saying that the letter and spirit of text-books is of great importance, although it should never be forgotten that the word and personality of the teacher surely have a deeper and more lasting influence. Still, a good teacher with only bad text-books at his disposal—bad from an international point of view—is singularly handicapped, and therefore the books certainly deserve the attention which is at present being paid to them.

In a voluminous report recently issued by the League's Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, information is given concerning the action taken in regard to text-books by fourteen Governments who have issued orders or circulars and the work of no less than twelve international and sixteen national organizations.

A study of the summaries and almost unending resolutions given in the report shows a wide variety of methods. Some Governments have laid down rules as to the content of school text-books, and in countries where books must be approved by the authorities re-

sponsible for education this seems efficient. In other countries, where the teachers themselves select the books they use, their action has proved valuable. Thus the 'black lists' of the French primary teachers have caused authors and publishers to scrap formerly widely used texts or to proceed to drastic changes, and, not to mention other methods, the 'white lists' such as those established in Great Britain under the auspices of the League of Nations Union serve the purpose of making the best books widely known.

Several years ago the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation recommended a procedure called after its inventor, the Casares resolution, which consisted in a friendly request by one National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to another in whose country it had noticed errors of fact in school-books. While still believing that this quiet means of improvement is useful (it has been proved in a few concrete cases), the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation has now decided to call a small Committee of Experts to select those methods most likely to lead to early results. In that Committee, both historians and educators will come together so as to represent the point of view of research and objective truth and also the practical needs of daily life at school.

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International Notes

America

The 'I.Q. Movement'—Gradually it is coming into the minds of school people that the 'I.Q. Movement' has done education harm. Based on a false philosophy and given a name that has misled the public, the 'intelligence' test fad has tended to intensify the verbalism of the schools at the very time when relief and enrichment are the outstanding needs. Intelligence tests came into wide use in the armies during the war and acquired a momentum which carried over into the schools when the army was demobilized. Perhaps the hysteria of the war and the arbitrary spirit of army life made such an experience inevitable. *Educational measurement*, refined and precise, has a large place in scientific education. But the intelligence test will have to be lived down. (J. E. M. in the *Journal of the National Education Association*.)



Great Britain

The National Institute of Child Psychology has started a training course for teachers, social workers, doctors and psychologists, beginning on Friday, 9th October. We believe that a demand is slowly but very steadily growing for men and women trained in the study and handling of difficult, nervous and delinquent children, and that the training course that will be given by the staff of the National Institute of Child Psychology will help to fill it.

Dr. Margaret Lowenfeld gave an excellent paper on the methods of the Institute to the Child Study and Research Sub-Committee of the Home and School Council on 22nd September. She told of the care, both medical and psychological, that is given to every child. She showed us their system of filing and the admirable documentation of the observations made on each case, both in the home and from the child itself. She described the weekly analyses of the children's work and play during the afternoon session; on the basis of which the Medical Director forecasts the probable course which the child's emotional disturbance will run. Comparing the forecasts with the actual developments of the case means that mistakes, when they occur, are shown up in black and white, and can be profited by. All this made good hearing. So did the account of the work done in the play-room from two to five on Tuesdays and Fridays. But the most striking thing of all is that these children, whose difficulties are almost invariably caused by their home background, are not patched up so that they can keep their balance in some specially selected environment, but are really healed so that they can face reality with confidence and understanding in the very homes that were the cause of their misery.

The present session of the Training Course is well attended and it is possible that there may be a second course, to begin in January. This will enable those for whom there was not room in the present session, or who heard of the course too late, to take up their work without waiting until the beginning of a

new academic year. Applications for syllabus and full particulars should be made to: The Secretary, National Institute of Child Psychology, Robert Browning House, 19 Warwick Crescent, London, W.2.

Museums and the Blind—The National Institute for the Blind, 224-8 Great Portland Street, London, W.1, announces that the usual museum order 'Do not Touch' is being modified in favour of the blind, who are allowed to handle specimens in the British Museum, the Imperial Institute, the Natural History Museum and a large number of museums in the provinces. The movement originated in Sunderland some twenty years ago, but is being very largely increased in scope at present. It is already widely practised in America, and is a most valuable and enjoyable aid to the education of the blind. (A booklet—*Museums and the Blind*, 3d.—may be had on application to the Institute.)

Boys' Clubs—'The healthy boy has a desire for play and adventure, and it is good that he should have this desire. . . . Unfortunately, it is only too often the case that when a boy has to enter the category of wage-earner at a comparatively early age he is deprived of the opportunity of play. Therefore, an important function of the Club is to give back to the boy his privilege of play, and so to guide it that it will serve its true purpose as a training of body and mind. Secondly, the Club appeals to the desire of the boy for comradeship which it turns into loyalty and co-operation. In the best of Clubs there is achieved a wonderful degree of sympathy and understanding, which has been well termed "An Aristocracy of Comradeship." ' This is an extract from the annual report of the National Association of Boys' Clubs, 27 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1. The report is well illustrated and gives a good account of the valuable work of this Association. It may be obtained on request from the Secretary.



Soviet Russia

Children's Books—Jakob Meksin, the head of the children's department of the official publishers to the Russian Government, Moscow, gives, in a special monograph in German, an account of the new children's books that have appeared in the last decade in Russia. The authors of these books are not professional writers, but kindergarten teachers and all kinds of self-educated persons. Many of them wrote their books in collaboration with children, generally without any idea of publication. These new books are not always all that might be desired from the artistic point of view, but they are bursting with vitality and energy; there is no monotony and no pattern. These new young writers needed schooling and culture; the government publishers therefore gave opportunity for them to meet educators, booksellers, illustrators and literary critics. The works were tested and discussed at meetings, and agenda of matters to be dealt with were even drawn up at these meetings. In cases where

the meeting could not agree, the book in question was submitted to the criticism of children; the result was, that often, where the author of a book had been dubious of its reception, it proved acceptable to the children, who, on the other hand, thought nothing of books from which the author had expected much.

The Moscow Institute for the Advancement of Children's Literature has been of very great use in this new development, for it has taken upon itself an inquiry into the needs and tastes of children in books. The children's decisions as to books could not, of course, be taken as they stood, for the success or non-success of a book often hung upon the chance grouping of a meeting, as age, sex, and social standing. The children's decisions are checked by statistics; figures were kept carefully in the matter of the lending of books, in the care of them, in the children's wishes, and in the attitude of young children when stories were read to them.

The kind of literature to be found among these children's books is much the same as among the children's books of other nations. The first reading book contains fairy tales, though opinion as to their suitability is divided, people fearing that they may alienate children from the real world. Therefore fairy tales are published only when they show special excellence of an artistic, educational or ideological nature, or on account of their sociopolitical tendencies. Technical books in narrative form, for example, a book by Usinskij, *How the Shirt Grew out of Flax*, and translations from German, American and Swedish books, are much in demand.

The illustrators are young artists just out of art school or still studying or entirely self-taught. Children are often asked to do the illustrations themselves, and adults have learned much from their criticism and decisions. For as a rule the pictures take too little stock of the artless mind of children and their primitive tastes.



Nursery School Association

The General Committee of the Nursery School Association met at 32 Bloomsbury Street on 3rd October and was well attended.

The present situation and prospects as regards Nursery Schools were discussed in relation to the effects of the passing of the National Economy Act, and the forthcoming General Election. Amongst other measures it was decided to send a circular letter to the Chairmen of the Education Committees of England and Wales urging that in view of the financial position of the country, the needs of young children,

as set forth in the Circular issued by the Ministries of Health and Education in 1929, would now be greater than ever.

The letter pointed out that the Nursery School has an important part to play during the economic crisis, since reduced spending power in many homes will entail poorer food and clothing for the children with greater risks of sickness and malnutrition. It urged that upon the nurture and training during the next few years of the child, now under five, depends much of the possibility of economy of expenditure by the Education and Health Authorities after it reaches school, and that therefore in spite of the financial crisis, it is highly desirable to maintain the efficiency of existing Nursery Schools and to proceed with all new plans as the most economical way of meeting the stress of conditions in the immediate future.

The January Conference of the Association will take place as usual in connection with the Annual Conference of Educational Associations held at University College. The Annual Meeting of the N.S.A., followed by an Open Meeting, will be held on Saturday, 9th January, at 10 a.m. Miss Margaret Drummond, M.A., Vice-Chairman of the Association, will preside.

Nominations for the election of officers and members of the Committee at the Annual Meeting are desired. Each nomination requires a proposer and seconder. The consent of the person to be nominated must first be obtained. Nominations should be sent to the Secretary, N.S.A., 32 Bloomsbury Street, London, W.C.1, as soon as possible.

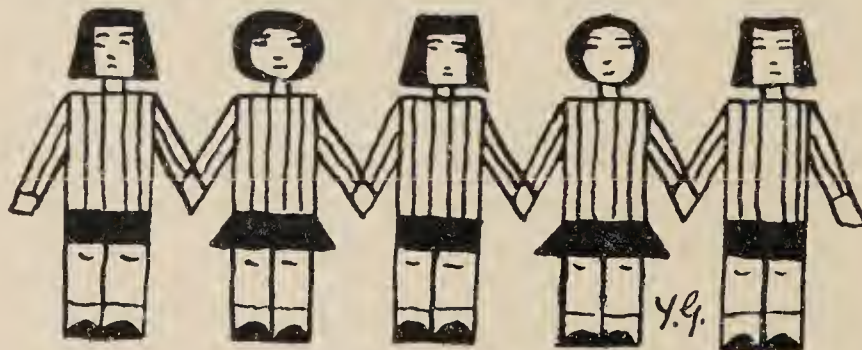
The next Committee was fixed for 28th November.

The North Islington Nursery School, the first in Islington, hopes to celebrate a 'Birthday Anniversary' on 4th November, when the Mayor of Islington has promised to visit the school. The school is full, with a waiting list of twenty.

In the course of an interesting review of the educational service of West Ham, at the Rotary Club on 2nd September, Mr. J. R. Cully, Deputy Education Officer, reported that the demand for places in the two Nursery Schools (each accommodating 120 children) was extraordinary, and that the Committee was considering the extension of this part of their work.

In September a tender for the erection of the first Nursery School in Northampton was accepted by the Northampton Education Committee.

Miss Margaret Drummond, M.A., E.I.S., Vice-Chairman of the Nursery School Association, has written a new book entitled 'Gateways to Learning,' to be published this autumn.



Book Reviews

Stammering. By *Elsie Fogerty*. (George Allen & Unwin. 2s. 6d.)

A carefully planned, thoughtful yet practical book, and indicative of the movement to treat stammering as a nervous disorder. Replete with exercises and suggestions for self-help, it is a volume that should be read by those who have to treat the stammerer. Much stress is laid on breathing, and rightly so, but one feels, important as is this aspect, that the gospel of relaxation, as applied to the treatment of stammering by Dr. Boome and those associated with him in London, might have received more attention. The last chapter on the cure of the adult is most suggestive, for the problem here is different in many ways from that of the child. Much research has been done in schools, and in stammering clinics for children, and it is well that we should consider what modifications, if any, are necessary in treating the person of mature years.

H. W. Howes

The Nature and Treatment of Stammering.

By *Dr. E. J. Boome and Miss M. A. Richardson*. (Methuen. 3s. 6d.)

This is a book which should be read by all educationists, social workers and above all by the unfortunate stammerer. The writers, the one a distinguished medical officer of the London County Council, the other the Senior Assistant in connection with the Council's remedial clinics for stammering children, have successfully maintained their thesis that stammering is in the nature of a nervous disorder. They commence with a discussion of a number of theories, in nearly all of which the main contention is that it is a speech defect. The chapters on causation demonstrate that, far from it being a matter of defective speech, the determining cause in a large number of cases can be traced to the repression of some concrete imaginary fear. Stress is rightly laid on the social efficiency of the stammerer, an important point because there are still some who think of stammering in terms of mental deficiency. Thus money spent in treating the stammerer is a sound national investment. An interesting chapter reveals the inner thoughts of the person so afflicted. Perhaps the most vital pages are those dealing with treatment, for therein lies the hope for the stammerer. The authors consider that there should be a complete investigation of each case from all points of view, and that it is essential to apply principles of mental and physical relaxation of treatment. The book brings hope to the sufferer, and once and for all the quacks and charlatans who have thriven on him are shown to be dangers to the stammerer, and incidentally to the community.

H. W. Howes

Psychology and Education. By *C. R. McRae*, M.A., Ph.D. (Whitcombe & Tombs, Australia. 8s. 6d.)

Dr. McRae does not claim to have written a complete text-book of psychology, but it can be claimed for him that he has written one which is extremely clear and

interesting. As a text-book for students who are beginning their training as teachers it will be invaluable, but it is to be regretted that its publication in Australia may make access to it difficult in Britain.

The book is divided into three parts. Part I is concerned with 'The Motivation of Learning' and deals with general psychological tendencies and the affective and conative sides of experience. It also contains some discussion of psycho-analysis and the problem child. Part II is entitled 'The Psychology and the Pedagogy of Cognition', and includes a discussion of the various cognitive agents as well as different aspects of the learning process, not forgetting the much-discussed question of the transfer of training. Part III takes up the question of 'Individual Differences' and gives an idea of the kind of testing material available and methods used.

Each chapter is concluded with a series of problems for discussion, as well as a list of books for further reading. These add considerably to the value of the book.

While there is nothing new in *Psychology and Education*, a student would be lucky who had his first introduction to the subject through this source. The author is to be congratulated on sufficiently simplifying many difficult aspects of psychology for average individuals to make a good beginning, but at the same time pointing the way to further study in a way likely to appeal to more advanced students.

E. M. Nevill

Nursing Psychological Patients. By *Mary Chadwick*, S.R.N. (Allen & Unwin. 10s. 6d.)

This very interesting and able book is based on lectures given to hospital nurses, and one can imagine the class asking countless questions at the close of some of the lectures. Nurses who read Miss Chadwick's book will feel that there are many things that they would like to ask, for her instructions often stop short without telling them what to do for their patients. But the author was in a difficult position, and she seems to have tried to keep the balance between giving the nurse the 'little knowledge' which is dangerous, and instructing her so fully that she will feel herself better qualified to deal with the patient than the doctor who confines himself entirely to physical treatment. There are indeed great difficulties at present in the treatment of psychological disorders. On the one hand, the psychological doctor is often unable to obtain the services of a nurse who has sufficient knowledge to co-operate with him. On the other hand, the nurse who is accustomed to study her patient from the psychological point of view may find it difficult to co-operate with an exclusively physical treatment. Books such as this, which show how often in illness physical and psychological factors occur together, will help to overcome these difficulties. The chapter on children is probably the most valuable; the Introduction is interesting but perhaps not essential; the lists of books for reading are good, if somewhat alarming. Nurses who have some elementary

knowledge of psychology will find the book intelligible and full of helpful material. It should be read by all senior nurses. *Evelyn N. Saywell, I.R.C.P. & S.*

The Case for Action. By *Innes H. Pearse, M.D., B.Sc., and G. Scott Williamson, M.C., M.D.* (Faber & Faber, Ltd., London. 5s.)

This readable and pithy small book gives an account of the Pioneer Health Centre—a centre for 'biological education' that takes the family and not the individual as its biological unit. The Settlement is founded on medical science, but its aim and interest is for the creation and preservation of health.

To this end each member of the family undergoes a periodic overhaul so that any disorders may be checked further and further back, and each member is made responsible for his own health. The Centre as well gives psychological advice, and supplies to an increasing degree an environment in which such advice can be followed—mothers' clinic, nursery school, club, refreshment and reading rooms and the possibilities of using swimming baths, gymnasium, etc.

The book describes in stimulating and suggestive, yet carefully unexaggerated, terms the work already done and the ideas that inform and correlate the many sided activities of the Centre. It shows how voluntary effort can combine with State legislation and how educational, medical and social workers are working with the members themselves, and not just for them, to make the Pioneer Health Centre a real approach towards the conquest of disease, whether of mind, body or estate. This is a book dealing with an experiment of which none of us can afford to be ignorant.

Margaret T. Turner

Experiments in Educational Self-Government.

By *A. L. Gordon Mackay.* (Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London. 7s. 6d.)

To the increasing number of teachers who are experimenting with self-government, Mr. Mackay's book will come as a fresh stimulus and encouragement, while young teachers who take the trouble to read it may save themselves many pitfalls by adhering closely, at any rate to begin with, to the technique so clearly and logically described.

Three-quarters of the book is devoted to a careful description of experiments carried out over a period of nine years among pupils of all ages up to university status and embracing nearly all the usual subjects of the school curriculum.

A chapter dealing with the bearing of the subject on children's sex problems is particularly sane and wise.

From a sound and clearly conceived psychological basis a born teacher has evolved a technique which is successful in achieving its objects not only when applied by the author, who would obviously be successful with any old methods, but also when used by colleagues whom he persuaded to try it—a much more convincing proof of its effectiveness.

The author knows exactly what he wants to achieve and in evolving his method he does not for a moment lose sight of his aims. Consequently the method which he would be the last to claim as having any finality about, is entirely free from the shortcomings of the many slapdash experiments which do so much to discredit new education.

A somewhat self-conscious preface creates an initial prejudice which rapidly evaporates under the influence of descriptions which bear the humble-minded stamp of the true scientist.

An unusually thoughtful and discriminating bibliography completes the debt of gratitude which anyone who reads the book must feel towards its author.

Paul Roberts

Primary Education by Correspondence. By *K. S. Cunningham.* (Melbourne University Press. 2s. 6d.)

This title suggested a dead and lifeless book and it was somewhat of a surprise to find oneself following a romantic adventure in education. A settler, in 1914 living miles from the nearest school, wrote appealing for help in the education of his two boys and this was the beginning of the present splendidly equipped organization by means of which over 13,000 children are now taught by correspondence.

The work, at first carried out by the students of a teachers' training college, is now undertaken by special educational apartments in each State of Australia. Interesting details are given about the growth of the work, the methods used and the progress that the children make in comparison with the ordinary school child. One of the chief problems is to devise suitable types of assignments and lesson sheets that will correspond to the elementary school curriculum. This has been done successfully, and the correspondence class papers in English and Arithmetic for grades V and VI are now used in almost every school in the State of Western Australia. One chapter describes how the personal element is brought into the method of teaching these isolated children and what means are taken to bring them into touch with the outside world. The success of the venture depends greatly on the work undertaken by the 'Home Supervisor', usually the already overworked mother, one of whom writes, 'The girls have to do their work in the barn, so as to get a little peace', and another, 'Washing day is a good day for lessons, for I can get the children round me in the wash house and give them spelling and tables.'

The appendix gives samples of the instruction leaflets used and some of the pupils' work. The book is full of facts that will prove interesting to the ordinary school teacher, especially to those working on individual lines.

Gwen Watkins

Ballads and Ballad Plays. Edited by *John Hampden, M.A.* (Thomas Nelson & Sons, Ltd., London, Edinburgh and New York. 1s. 6d.)

Here surely is the book for which teachers, not only of verse speaking, but of drama and mime, have long been waiting. Every type of ballad is included and

advice is given regarding every form of presentation. The sections include old rhymes and ballads, the Robin Hood ballads, ballads of the North, ballad mimes and ballad plays and modern ballads. There are ballads suitable for dialogue work, ballads with refrains, and ballads of the purely narrative type. The mimed ballads are given with complete directions as worked out in their classes by Mrs. Daisy Dykes and Miss Marion Welham. The Appendix alone would make the book valuable for teachers. It contains an article on 'The Miming of Ballads', specially written by Miss Gertrude Pickersgill, one on 'Dramatization of Ballads', giving practical hints as to how ballads may be cut or patched for acting purposes, one on acting, dealing with the spirit in which ballad plays should be performed, and long notes on staging, lighting and dressing. The Appendix concludes with a complete set of Notes on all the ballads used, and hints as to the best treatment of them. Truly, as the Scottish proverb has it, this is 'Guid gear in wee buik.'

Marjorie Gullan

La Préparation à l'Education Familiale. Published by the B.I.E., 44 Rue des Maraîchers, Geneva.

Important. A report drawn up on the basis of answers

to a questionnaire sent out to most of the countries of the five continents: Does the programme of the official schools in your country include a course of Infant Welfare for young girls? Is there a course on child psychology? In default of this, is there proper provision for the instruction of young parents? etc., etc.

Poetry Speaking for Children. Part I. *Marjorie Gullan and Percival Gurrey* (Methuen & Co. 2s. 6d.)

A plea for the inclusion of Poetry Speaking as an essential part of speech training in the school curriculum. The method outlined offers a new approach to poetry teaching. 'The fundamental purpose underlying this method of taking spoken poetry in school is not to teach children to utter aloud mere words, but to train them to give, in the speaking of the words, all the thought and spirit and character that it is the purpose of these words to bring to life.' (Authors' introduction.) Explicit directions for working out the excellent examples given.

Books Received

MOTHER AND CHILD. *Hedda Walther.* (Routledge. 3s. 6d.) A series of 48 delightful photographic studies.

PRACTICAL AND ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES IN THE SCHOOLS. *Their Function, Psychological Basis and Practice.* U. M. Edmonds and E. A. Waterfall. (Allen & Unwin. 6s.)

THE WHITE FLAME. By Mrs. Charles Roden Buxton and Edward Fuller. With an introduction by Sir Philip Gibbs. (Longmans, Green & Co., Ltd., and The Weardale Press, Ltd., London, 2/-.) The story of the Save the Children Fund and its Founder, Eglantyne Jebb.

THE WORKERS' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION. *Twenty-seventh Annual Report.* 6d. May be obtained from the W.E.A., 16 Harpur Street, Theobald's Road, London, W.C.1.

SCHULLEBEN UND UNTERRICHT einer freien allgemeinen Volksschule nach den Grundsätzen Neuer Erziehung. By Dr. Peter Petersen. (Hermann Böhlau Nachfolger, Weimar, Germany.)

ERRATUM.

The California Congress of Parents and Teachers releases its film reports in the Californian Parent-Teacher Bulletin, not in the Child Welfare Magazine, as stated in the August issue of the New Era. The Child Welfare releases are prepared by Mrs. Elizabeth K. Kerns, Associate Chairman of the Committee on Motion Pictures. We regret the error.

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

A Monthly Magazine for Parents and Teachers

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THE NEW ERA

IN HOME AND SCHOOL

Outlook Tower

MOST of our readers are interested in what, for lack of a better name, we call the 'New Education'. Most of them admit that children could be given a far better start in life than they have been wont to receive under older methods, which have too often blunted their energies, crowded the surface of their minds with facts of very doubtful utility and left unsolved their personal problems of adjustment to society through a proper understanding of its demands and of their own latent powers.

Yet many teachers to-day, while admitting how much more might be done for children, remain, even if uneasily, in the old rut, content to do no more than meet the old requirements. We have been told several times: 'I gave up my subscription to the magazine because it made me more dissatisfied with "What is" when I glimpsed "What might be".' We feel that by rousing even this half-hearted form of 'divine discontent' we have made a beginning. But we realize that unless we can show our ideals to be practicable, we cannot claim to have made any useful contribution to the solving of the difficulties besetting the modern educationist.

Let us face boldly the obstacles that make so apparently unbridgeable the gulf between 'What is' and 'What might be'. Teachers in State-aided schools sometimes say that they cannot try out new methods when faced with large classes equipped with inadequate material. We freely admit that it may be easier to practise the new education in a private school where the classes are smaller, where the parents, having chosen such a school, are usually in sympathy with liberal views of education, and where the children come from a home background which predisposes them to benefit by the greater freedom and scope for initiative. Yet many of

the most interesting experiments have been made in State schools. The Vienna Schools, the Hamburg Schools, and the Winnetka Schools, U.S.A., offer examples of such experiments in a whole school system. But there are pioneer teachers in every type of school, and in most countries, who have adopted the new methods and found them successful.

These methods are difficult to formulate, for they do not concern themselves so much with the teaching of subjects as with the child himself. The really important thing in the New Education is the teacher's attitude to the child, his aptitudes and difficulties. A teacher must realize the conditions for growth—both physical, emotional and mental—and must base all his dealings with the child on his knowledge of these conditions. If he has this vital attitude to his work, he will evolve his own technique. We can only suggest here certain lines that he will be likely to follow in ensuring for the child a proper environment for his fullest development.

He will, for example, try to break up his class so that the children look at each other and feel that they are co-operating in a group; he will see to it that they have certain periods for silent reading each week, and this will enable him to give individual attention, both to the backward and to the gifted. He will give each child the opportunity of telling himself or the class about things that interest him, and he will encourage the children to write about the things that they are actually doing, for only in this way can thought and expression be combined. In arithmetic he may keep in touch with current events and plan his work so that sums apply to every day life, taking account of topical happenings and developments. A constant friendly co-operation will always be maintained between all the

subjects taught, and in all subjects, no matter what the arranged scheme may be, a choice of work may be given, involving variety in type as well as in standard, so that both the imaginative child and the practical child may choose the work best fitted to his needs. In fact, such a teacher will see to it that the subject matter is, as far as possible, related to the child's own interests and experiences in living.

As regards complaints about poverty of equipment, we cannot help feeling that these are sometimes a rationalization of the teacher's fear of embarking upon new methods. We should like to see our schoolrooms more beautiful. The idea of plain white washed walls, to be decorated by the children themselves, seems to be an unextravagant step in the right direction, but it is one that may be vetoed for some time to come by unimaginative authorities. Yet even so small and sensible an item as white-wash is not really essential. It does not take much thinking back to remember, in one's childhood, how the happiest children were not those who had the most expensive toys. It is equally true to say that the best educated children are not necessarily those who have the latest thing in classroom equipment to learn from. The most useful charts of all are those prepared by the children themselves; the most apt illustrations are those that they draw themselves, and we are inclined to think that the most memorable text-books are those that they compile themselves.

Large classes and poor apparatus are the obstacles most often insisted upon by teachers, yet there are others, almost as serious, to be faced; namely, the fear of an unsympathetic inspector, the rigidity of many still current schemes of work, and, chief of all, examinations. As regards the first, the old evil of payment by results dies hard, and still breeds fear of the inspectorate. Yet the younger men and women particularly are sympathetic to a changing education, provided that the changes do not lower the standard of achievement. Unfortunately many idealists are not practical, and while their theories are good, they have not the capacity to maintain good discipline and ensure a high standard of work. But let us be quite clear on this point. The New Education does not

mean 'sloppy work'. It should realize a higher rather than a lower standard of achievement. Dr. Carleton Washburne claims that each child should reach 100 per cent efficiency in 'the skills' whilst at school. He also claims that by substituting scientifically planned individual work we save 50 per cent of the child's time. If this be true, it is obviously an enormous gain and the time so saved can be devoted to enriching the cultural curriculum, introducing socialized activities that release creative power, and giving the child a grasp of the current problems and interests of the modern world.

Suggested schemes of work are not really formidable detriments. They can always be modified or slowed down to allow of a fuller treatment of the more valuable subject matter. And in any case the material can be handled along new lines. Examinations are certainly a dragon in the path of progress, partly because the amount of subject matter to be covered in the time available does not allow the average child time for the æsthetic and emotional outlets essential for growing children. But the chief failure of the present examination system is that it is planned for one type of child only, the academic, and is overshadowed too much by university requirements. There is however a considerable agitation for the reform of examinations, and we may look forward to many wise modifications in the near future.

If, in spite of all drawbacks, many pioneer teachers have managed to change the whole atmosphere of their schools, to adopt new methods and to obtain satisfactory inspectorial reports and examination results, one is led to suppose that the chief obstacle to progress lies in a certain timidity still remaining with the teachers themselves. We do not wish to seem to pooh-pooh the teacher's objections, nor to minimize his real difficulties. We know them and sympathize with them. But all those who have taken their courage in both hands and started on a new road have discovered that it is not so difficult if the changes be introduced gradually, one at a time, and the interest of the rest of the staff and the co-operation of the children be obtained from the outset. Once this right note is sounded, most material difficulties will fall like the walls of Jericho.

Economics in School

An Interview with Sir Norman Angell, Economist and Journalist

Author of 'The Great Illusion', 'The Public Mind', 'The Story of Money', etc.

IN an interview granted to the *New Era* just before the General Election, Sir Norman Angell deplored the fact that the electorate is on the whole given an extremely bad educational preparation for its job. He pointed out that it was going to be asked to vote largely upon economic and financial questions which the education of the man in the street had for the most part entirely ignored. Much time and money is spent on giving him some smattering of knowledge upon many subjects, but of the money in his pocket and in his banks usually not a word. He is left to decide upon monetary policy purely by the light of so-called common sense. And yet there are certain truths in economics to which common sense is no better a guide than it is to such truths as the rotundity of the earth.

Sir Norman has spent many years in working out some way of making the intricacies of currency, credit and economics easily intelligible to the layman. He has elaborated a device which is based upon an interesting analogy. He suggests that the teaching of bridge or chess would be impossible by verbal abstract exposition, without the use of the apparatus. That is the way, in fact, in which we usually teach economics. Imagine, he says, trying to teach chess without the board or chessmen, by texts in a book, or to teach bridge without cards. A 'lesson' would run something like this:—

The game of bridge is played by the distribution of fifty-two discs, divided into four classes or denominations; these separate denominations consisting of discs of an ascending scale of values, the whole distributed by the players in rotation, each distributor having the right of determining. . . How long would it take to learn bridge by this method? Could it be learned at all by the average scholar?

Yet we know that the thing which is unteachable in that way can be taught easily if we adopt another method: visual demonstration, with the apparatus, sitting down and playing it.

He has attempted to apply this truth in pedagogy to the teaching of economics. 'Do for currency what you have done for bridge.' Sir

Norman has invented a game of the nature of card games, not more difficult to learn than bridge, designed to apply the principle indicated above to the teaching of certain central truths in economics, particularly those touching the nature of money, credit, banking, since it is confusions about money which are the core of the most mischievous economic fallacies.

The game is peculiar in that it is related to a story—it dramatizes the situations in the adventures of a sailor landing on an island with two blocks of gold, where money had not heretofore been used.

Sir Norman has found that if half a dozen pupils in a school can be taught the game (and that can be done in a couple of hours by a good demonstrator) it will spread through the school 'by infection', and then the complications of currency and certain economic problems become much more easily understandable.

The history of *The Money Game* (the title of the combined book and cards) since its appearance a year or two ago, is interesting. It continues to sell very considerably, but mainly among adults, whereas he thinks its strongest appeal should be to schools. That it has not spread much amongst schools he attributes to the rigidity of the curriculum and to the fact that the teachers are apt to be frightened by the idea of tackling a subject like currency. He insists, however, that the fundamentals are simple and that there is no reason for teachers to 'funk' the subject.

Human society this last sixty or seventy years has changed out of all recognition, but our educational values remain, in the large, those of the monkish Schoolmen. Although we give a little attention to physical science, we give extremely little to the social sciences, and turn our children out with no real sense of the mechanism of that elaborate, interdependent society, which invention in half a century has brought into being, and which as voters they are called upon to manage. To give them, as children a sense of the 'mechanism of society' is one of the primary duties of the educationist.

A Child's Right to do Wrong

MARIA B. TE WATER, M.A., M.B., Ch.B.

‘A CHILD’S right to do wrong.’ ‘No, that can’t be right. No one has a right to do wrong’, says Mr. A.

‘A child’s right to do wrong’, reads Mrs. B. ‘This is unscientific. All emphasis should be and is placed on doing the right thing.’

‘But’, asks Miss C., ‘what is the wrong thing? Is it not possible that right and wrong can be two aspects of the same thing? A coin has two different sides. Neither of the two sides adds to or detracts from the value of the coin.’

‘However’, remarks Dr. K., ‘in a game of “heads up” any “tail up” coin will be wrongly or incorrectly placed.’

Through this paper the word ‘wrong’ will have the above connotation, i.e. not correct.

The most dynamic word in the statement that the child has a right to do wrong is the word ‘Do’. It expresses activity. Activity is the sign of life. Even in the lowest form of all living matter, the *amœba*, there is activity. The more complicated and complex the structure, the more highly organized the resultant activity.

The very young baby learns about himself and his immediate world around him by means of random movements. As the child grows older and becomes stronger, these movements change in character and become more definite and purposeful. Later we see him playing with a toy, feeding himself, and at a still later date doing some definite piece of work, which requires a certain amount of attention, some experience or familiarity with the use of the tools he is to use, coupled with a definite aim. It will thus be seen that if there is a 100 per cent attention, familiarity and aim, the result will be very nearly 100 per cent production for the given child or person. How often during the day does the average person function at this level? How often can we expect the child, with so many new things happening each day, to reach the 100 per cent mark in any one of them—attention, familiarity with the tools being used, definite aim?

These three factors—attention, familiarity or experience, and aim—are three of the most

important factors in connection with any given piece of work; but they are not of equal value, at any one time or in any given situation. In regard to any particular piece of work, attention and experience may appear to be of greater importance; but for the individual, aim takes the first position. It has a dynamic value and directly influences and governs both attention and experience.

It is very difficult to get a clear idea of the aims of a child, other than from what he does, whether it be playing, talking, or working. One asks the question: ‘Is there a real constructive value in doing things incorrectly?’ It is the incorrect time to touch the stove when it is hot, but watch the caution with which the child approaches a stove who has experienced the feel of a really hot one. It is incorrect to appear at table with dirty nails, and what child can stand the quiet censure of being given the seat at the lower end of the table by himself for not conforming to the table rule, which demands tidiness and cleanliness, especially if this is unaccompanied by any emotional display on the part of the adult.

Every child not only strives to stand well with himself, but with every one around him. Often the child makes attempts to stand in well with the adults, such blundering attempts that all that is gained by him is censure and blame. Would anyone understanding the aim behind this effort command him to desist? How often is a child supervised so carefully that nearly all spontaneous activity has been ‘don’ted’ out of him? How often must a child take for granted nearly everything he is told? How many children have the opportunity of finding things out for themselves within reasonable limits, and thus developing into a judicious adult, whose wise discretion and caution can be such an important factor in his business and social relationships? The answers to these questions seem to formulate themselves into other questions. How many children can and will attack a new piece of work fearlessly, but with care? How many attempts of all kinds in all fields of work have been

unsuccessful because those doing the work are too much afraid of being wrong? How many children retain at twelve years of age the same level of initiative they displayed at six years?

All activity is accompanied by feeling. Every one desires that this feeling be one of satisfaction. However, we do not live alone, and those around us do not react in the same way as we do to our action. Since man is a social being, he desires not only satisfaction for himself, but the approbation of his fellows. This latter emotional element is a most constructive factor in the situation when used correctly. It helps to determine the value of any experience.

This does not mean that all actions that cannot be approved must be condemned. Rather let us find out what the child is trying to do. His aims may be commendable even if his methods are faulty.

The child has a right to do wrong, if he is to be integrated at such a level and in such a way that he is able to develop naturally and easily towards physical, mental and emotional maturity and thus be able to face, analyse, and criticize his failures in a calm and detached manner. This can be attained only as the result of years of experience. Under suitable guidance, experience is the best teacher.



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Parent-Teacher Co-operation in a Co-educational Preparatory School

WE are indebted to Mr. and Mrs. Clifford Allen for records of meetings between parents and staff at Hurtwood School, which they have now transferred to the ownership of Miss J. Jewson, the Headmistress. At these meetings parents and teachers, with a much-to-be-respected directness, talk over their impressions of how the children are reacting to the education given. Thus valuable work is done in bringing home, school and child into an understanding co-operation. A memorandum is issued to parents after each meeting.

The school has a system of 'family', as distinct from class, grouping. This gives scope for observation and inventive thoughtfulness which should have an enlivening effect on daily life. It should lead to individual efforts for good arrangement, and well thought out contrivances, begotten by a personal experience of the wise management of daily time and domestic space. This 'family' sense is invaluable in helping a child to feel at home in, and personally responsible for, its environment, and one can imagine far-reaching effects from this arrangement. Each child, though enjoying considerable freedom in its work, goes to school daily with the idea that his or her job must be done punctually and well, or else the whole family well-being is harmed. The consideration of this system brings hopeful thoughts. We are suff-

ering so much from a wrong idea of individual effort that the thought of a school living its life in this true, natural spirit of co-operative individual responsibility is a great cheer. The claims of this spirit can hardly be too highly placed or too clearly taught to-day.

A discussion on the teaching of biology, anatomy and the functions of the body provided a particularly valuable illustration of the importance of the meeting between parents and staff. Certain parents expressed their disapproval of the manner in which these matters were handled and the school clarified and justified its point of view. This, briefly stated, is as follows: when the behaviour of the children surprises and distresses us let us consider whether the point of behaviour in question ought to have had this effect. The actual incident

that caused the parents to raise the question was that a little boy and girl announced that they were going to have a baby, and that they knew how it was done. The school sincerely considered that an open statement of this sort, by very young children, was neither surprising nor distressing. Most little children are interested in the experience of birth, and rightly so, since it is a universal experience. This interest should not be considered to be in any way more reputable or disreputable than their interest in any other subject, and should be met with in no special emotional manner, either in imparting knowledge



The Youngest Child Arrives

about the body or in answering any questions. This calm matter of factness in dealing with questions about sex is all the more important when the child happens to be more than ordinarily interested in the subject.

It is more than probable that children will naïvely repeat in their play the knowledge they receive. They will be princes, pirates or parents at will, and if the play moves to dangerous realism—to a 'king's' head on a block with an axe brandished above, or to undue realism when they are playing at being parents—then intervention should have the same cool matter of fact quality in either case, and there should be no hint of censure or embarrassment. Children are philosophically content to realize that they cannot do certain things until they are grown-up, and can easily grasp that having babies of their own is one of these things.

The school wishes to point out that clear distinction is made between the manner in which they deal with such subjects in the case of very little children and the manner in which it is dealt with in the case of children of eleven or twelve years. This distinction of treatment at different stages seems to us important.

The discussion on the subject of the use of bad language—a phase in most children's lives—showed that as far as possible it was best to ignore the bad language, lest attention should rivet the habit.

The comments of parents on the manners of children were such as one would to-day expect. Parents should be brought in to co-operate over manners, by honestly facing facts of their own

conduct—of how far, for example, they themselves are gracious and show respect for the personality of others—how far their own table manners, habits as to swearing, and honest simplicity about sex matters are worthy of respect and imitation. They will thus establish an excellent basis for a happy and intimate relationship with their children. The school insists upon the fact that what we *are* is immensely important, that what we are depends on daily effort in adult life as in childhood, and parents must never lose sight of this in their thoughts about habits and manners. The old idea that children should be seen and not heard—clashing with its reaction, over-attention to children's sayings—has only to a small extent attained the happy equilibrium in which children benefit at once by wise care and wholesome neglect, a mingled regime which produces spontaneous and yet disciplined children. Hurtwood School is right in saying that neither point of view should be pressed too far. Children should not be compelled to respect parenthood, position or age, and yet teaching should show even children that sympathy and interest are possible between youth and age, that parenthood, age and position are in themselves factors of experience which cannot be left out of account in youth's conduct. Adults will never regret that as children they were definitely taught that most parents make many efforts for their children; that most positions, from that of their cook up to that of their king, demand work and care that money alone cannot pay for, and that to have grown old is to have weathered many storms.



Each Child is responsible for scrubbing its own table

A Teacher's Psychological Difficulties—II

W. T. R. RAWSON

Assistant Director, N.E.F.

THE first article in this series dealt with the problems of adjustment that teachers have to face in common with the rest of mankind. This article is to be concerned with those psychological dangers that are due to the character of his profession, and against which the teacher must be on guard.

Few people who have never taught realize the tremendous psychological demands made upon the teacher in the schoolroom, and the incessant vigilance and fertile imagination required to handle a large class of children. The mere welding of a variety of temperaments and interests into some sort of co-operating whole is in itself a constant strain, to which few other professions are subject to anything like the same extent. It is perhaps not unfair to say, for example, that success in business may come to those who are emotionally so unbalanced that they could not last a term in school. If therefore this article be filled with a description of the points at which the teacher is liable to fail, it is not because of any fault in the character of the teaching profession, but rather because of the unusually great psychological strain to which teachers are subject in their professional work.

The teacher has an enormous emotional adjustment to make at the outset of his career.* There comes the moment, either during or after training, or, in the case of private school teachers, without any previous training at all, when the teacher finds himself left alone before a crowd of expectant children. He cannot evade responsibility; he must either sink or swim. Every word he says, every gesture he makes, is establishing a particular kind of relationship between him and each individual child in his class. This is a personal relationship, and here lies the real crux of his first difficulty. The teacher is bound to have his power of leadership tested. The children will try to discover how far they can go. This process, disconcerting as it is, is nevertheless perfectly natural and proper. In

* The masculine pronoun is used to cover both sexes, in order to avoid the awkward 'his or her.'

all close relationships that are durable the limits of friendship must be sought for and found. In the classroom this moment of trial arrives with upsetting swiftness. Somehow a *modus vivendi* must be achieved. A satisfactory, that is lasting, solution must be made, or the teacher will always be handicapped in his work. The solution may be more, or less, fortunate; often it is secured only at a great sacrifice, and, however happy, it is in itself insufficient to constitute the good teacher.

This is the first emotional struggle through which the teacher has to pass, and its outcome often sets the stage for all later developments. A discussion of the different kinds of solution possible would, however, be out of place here, since it involves all the subtleties of modern psychology and needs a volume instead of an article for reasonable treatment. But it seems likely that in this first adjustment those are most successful who look upon it as a part of the great adventure of teaching, in which they have innumerable discoveries to make in the realm of human hearts and minds—both their own and their pupils'.

Here is the place to mention a danger to which teachers are not always alive. Too often we teachers tend unconsciously to regard the outer world, not as a place of adventure wherein our spurs are to be won, but as a haunt of danger and uncertainty. This fear of actual life may act as one of the unconscious motives that determine the teacher's choice of a career. The school atmosphere, its rules and standards, are known and understood. To become a teacher is to continue in this warm and familiar world. It involves no risk; it is playing safe. This is a real danger, since it means that as a body we teachers are apt to be timid and over-cautious, being afraid of venturing into the unknown.

Let me pass now to consider certain mental attitudes which the habits of school life are liable to instil, and which are likely to do harm to the teacher's psychological development unless he is on his guard. We can see them most clearly

if we consider them against the background of the outside world. Let us therefore suppose that we give up teaching and start to earn our living in another way. What will this new life teach us? What shall we find to be the insularities of our former professional attitude?

In the first place we shall probably be disconcerted by discovering that in real life—although not in school books—facts are the hardest of things to come by. We live in a world of uncertainties in which the pretence of absolute knowledge is the most foolish of all stupidities. In the classroom, facts seem to be easily ascertainable. There can be no dispute over the multiplication table or the date of Queen Anne's death. But out of school things are not so simple. When the teacher steps forth into the world outside the school, he sees that this illusion of certainty has two main roots. In the first place, he has had no mature minds to criticize his statements or opinions; and in the second, the subject matter of his lessons has nearly all been taken from the past. Even in language this is so. How often does an English teacher allow himself to discuss with his class the value of the Americanisms which are reaching England through the films, or the type of spelling reforms which have found favour recently? Were the teacher compelled to deal all the time with present problems, as the rest of mankind is compelled to do, he would be much more ready to realize that 'No one knows, but many believe'—is the only possible answer to the majority of them. With this realization would be coupled a more whole-hearted acceptance of the spirit of scientific inquiry. 'Prove all things' should be the constant motto of the teacher as well as of his pupils.

The second practical lesson we teachers have to learn upon changing our profession is the importance of respecting other people's views and feelings. Whether they are wise or ill founded, to ignore or to disdain them is to court disaster. This is a new situation for the teacher. He has been so used to being able to use his overwhelmingly greater experience to impress or persuade his pupils, that to find he is no longer the final authority is often upsetting. For he is thus compelled to learn to understand and respect a world of opinion which is not his own and with which he may not agree. If he can learn

this while a teacher, he will never pooh-pooh the honest perplexities or ill-founded opinions of his pupils.

A third lesson that teachers have to learn is that the standards and ideals of the classroom are very far from being identical with those accepted by the world outside. In some respects the world is harder. An engineer must see to it that his figures are right, not only that he has tackled his problem in the right way. On the other hand, real ability along one line only is what society demands of us. There is no rejection of the musician because he knows nothing of decimals or fractions. But there is a deeper difference. The virtues most prized in the classroom and on the football field are only a few amongst those that life demands. Thus the scale of values that the school holds up as its ideal is sadly inadequate, judged by the needs of the world outside. In particular, moral vitality, initiative and courage are at a premium in everyday life, and the faults that are sometimes the obverse of these qualities are considered comparatively unimportant, whereas in the classroom they are often strongly condemned. Again, if the teacher reads a few modern biographies of the men and women who were held up to him as heroes and heroines when he was a child, he will realize that greatness and what, at school, is ordinarily thought of as goodness are two very different things. Should he consort with the artist, the poet, the musician or the actor in his new life, he will be doubly convinced of this.

This danger of moral narrowness brings us to another point. As soon as the teacher leaves the classroom and moves about professionally in the outside world, he will be struck by a broad-minded tolerance. He will realize that he has constantly been tempted to be over-critical at school. He has been inclined to look only for the faults and not see the effort, and since he was never directly subjected to criticism by those he criticized, he will realize that he was often unconscious of how impossibly high a standard he demanded of his pupils.

With this danger another is closely bound up. We teachers are liable to an artificially created feeling of self-confidence, due not so much to a knowledge of our real ability in relation to other grown-ups, as to the absence of contradiction in

the classroom. Some of us may even have been influenced in the choice of our profession by this fact. Perhaps, when we were young, we had an impossibly high ideal placed before us, one which we could never reach or hope to reach. In consequence we were always afraid of criticism. The schoolroom offered us a haven where we might be safe from attack, since we knew that our greater experience would normally impose upon children, and tradition does not allow of criticism. The very word 'schoolmaster' has still the tang of this fear about it. The schoolmaster is supposed to be naturally doctrinaire and unable to brook criticism. Only the teacher knows how difficult it is for him to escape from this attitude when he is treated as an oracle throughout his working day.

And now, how are all these dangers to be guarded against? Undoubtedly a great safeguard lies in the teacher remaining in close touch with the rest of the community. This is considerably easier for the head teacher than for his staff. That this type of contact is a real need is being recognized more and more; and many teachers are being encouraged and helped to mix more with people of different professional interests. It might be thought that the holidays would be the best opportunity for this mixing. But the demands upon teachers during term time are so heavy that most holidays are rightly treated as periods of relaxation and recuperation. Most teachers, however, devote a part of their holidays to refresher courses, conferences, or similar semi-professional activities. The type of contact needed is perhaps as valuably made at such meetings as anywhere. Technical courses can be made the occasion of a real exchange of views where they are given by those who occupy other walks of life. They will be of extra value to the teacher, helping to free him from some of his most oppressive psychological burdens.

In conclusion may I relate the substance of a recent conversation with a young elementary school teacher. 'I used to depend', he said, 'upon the children's response to me for my own self-respect. In consequence, whenever things

went wrong, I felt the fault was mine. When the class got out of hand, for instance, instead of trying to find out the reason and showing forbearance and understanding, I used to get upset and try by being forceful to re-establish my ascendancy. But now I have got more self-confidence, I can get away from myself, and in consequence I have become more interested in the kiddies' welfare than in my own prestige.' I asked him how he had gained this self-confidence. He said that two things above all had helped him. First, he had discovered that he was liked and trusted by friends quite apart from his school work, and had thereby acquired a quiet trust in himself as a human being. Secondly, he had begun to get a real grasp of the technique of teaching. He knew now how to present his subject matter in sufficiently well-graded stages to enable children to make progress without imposing any strain on them. He was interested in improving this technique. These two things had released him from a pre-occupation with self due to fear, and provided him with a greater interest in the psychology of the children in front of him than in his own troubles.

This ability to forget oneself in looking at other people's problems and difficulties is the first fruits of an adjusted personality. Its results on classroom teaching are profound. It is this immediate reaction of the teacher's personal experience upon his professional work, owing to the inevitable closeness of the emotional relationship between teacher and taught, that accounts for the assumption so often made by parents and other authorities that a teacher's private life is a matter of public concern. Unfortunately the deductions drawn therefrom by the ignorant and bigoted are often the reverse of what they should be. Let the teacher take heart. There is no person in the community, unless it be the clergyman, so exposed to criticism by an uncomprehending public as he. There will also be no class so prepared in the near future by a continual self-training in psychology to lead the van of progress into a more tolerant and less embittered world.

A French Public School

L'Ecole des Roches—GEORGES BERTIER

THE investigation, recently carried out by Mr. Washburne among the educationists of the old and new worlds, has forced them to face their task anew and to reflect upon its essential aim. This article is the fruit of such reflexions.

We do not hope to teach the children in our care the solutions of all the questions they will be called upon to solve; this would be neither desirable nor even possible. It is just because these difficulties are for the most part unforeseeable that our first aim must be to make of our pupils strong and generous personalities, capable of tackling the problems of to-morrow in the finest spirit. For we give to all education a definitely social aim, and we try ardently to further the progress of present-day society.

It was from this striving for social progress that the school was born. I will give a brief account of its beginnings. In 1897 Demolins published *A quoi tient la supériorité des Anglo-Saxons?* (Anglo-Saxon Superiority), in which he affirmed the *social* superiority of the individualist peoples, who are characterized by initiative and co-operation. *L'Education Nouvelle* followed quickly upon the first book, in 1898. It shows how France, to some extent communalist, errs in relying not upon vigorous personalities, but upon the solidarity of the group. If she is to progress, she must remodel her education upon the pattern of the individualist nations, especially that of the Anglo-Saxons. Hence arose the Ecole des Roches.

How is one to succeed in forming free men who are ready to work for others and in harmony with others?

(1) By the moulding of a strong and healthy personality, which has grown up in freedom. The liberty at the school is to some extent illusory, since the masters live almost constantly with the pupils—quite as much as do the most devoted of parents. But as Stuart Mill pointed out, in establishing a psychological freedom the illusion is as fruitful as the reality. Besides, the liberty at Les Roches is to a large extent a reality. The pupils have freedom of movement in the great park of 130 acres. They come and

go freely, and are never marshalled in line like their comrades in other French schools; they themselves organize their work, their free time, their Sunday excursions, and so on.

They have also spiritual freedom. No pressure is brought to bear upon them, and if we counsel and guide them to the best of our ability, we never force them.

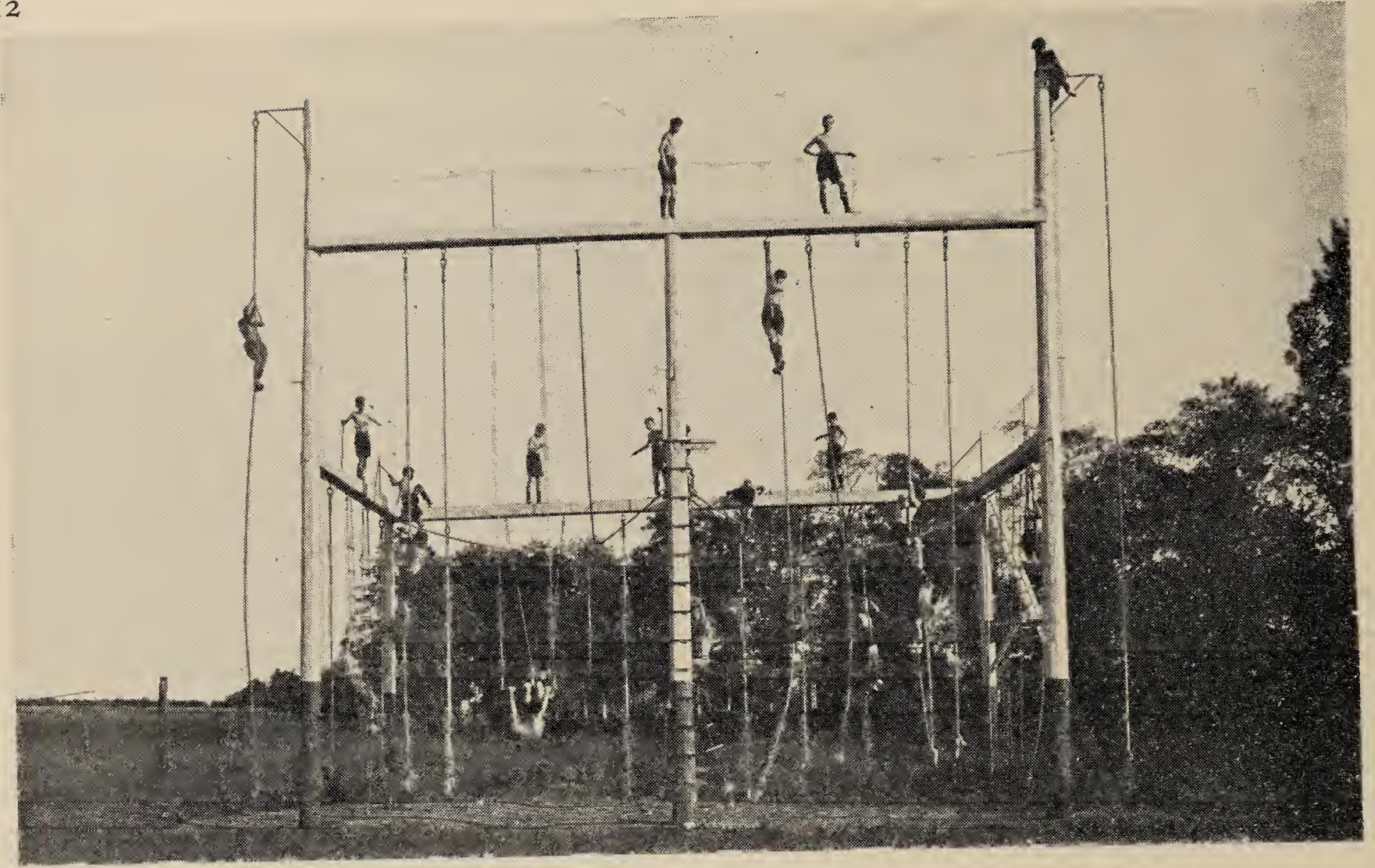
Old boys like to repeat that at their school: *Lying isn't done*. A house-master who has been here for thirty years says that he has never investigated any matter, great or small, without receiving a full and truthful account from his pupils. As a rule a spontaneous confession has made any inquiry unnecessary. By showing an enlightened and growing confidence in children, one best encourages straightforwardness in them. Without such straightforwardness character is never formed.

(2) The individual development of children depends, secondly, on their social education. Team games are a first stage in this training for co-operative action. The true team player learns to pass the ball—and the glory—to his teammate.

Freedom is not given to a pupil without the imposing of commensurate responsibility. Pupils are entrusted with the keeping of order, both material and moral. Committees, presided over by pupils, manage all the activities of the school; the masters are merely advisers. In each house—of which there are six large and four small—all the advancement in organization, reading and games is due to executive committees. Each month these Committees give an account of their doings to a meeting of the School Council, a body representative of all the social authorities of Les Roches. The Captains' Committee is the most important of all.

The captains are responsible for both material and moral order—a heavy responsibility for boys of sixteen, but one of which they show themselves splendidly worthy.

Dormitories, studies, games, free time occupation, all are under the care and sense of responsibility of one of the captains. Unwritten



Ecole des Roches. Gymnastics

laws exist alongside of the written rules. He knows that his younger companions are in his care. The upkeep of the spirit of the school and its high moral ideal are largely due to the committee of the captains. I preside over it myself each fortnight, and I have never left one of these meetings without being struck by the care which all evince for the spirit of the school. These young men get an excellent training for leadership, if it be true that any leader worthy of the name only accepts authority so as the better to serve. They will go into society with a longing for a fuller life, lived always in the spirit of co-operation. Thus we hope to make our contribution to the developing in twentieth century France of a sense of individual responsibility. We also hope that our old boys will contribute to social peace by a greater respect for conscience, by greater humility and greater love.

How much progress must be made before capital and labour can treat each other with the necessary brotherly frankness and spirit of co-operation! It will be the duty of the new school

to perceive the trend of social evolution and to bring as its contribution a greater sense of justice. It must also proclaim a profounder appreciation of the dignity of labour and of the rôle of the workman in production.

At Les Roches we attach a great importance to manual work because through it we hope to find a solution of the social question. The overseers of many of the workshops are workmen—carpenters, blacksmiths, gardeners—and they always hold the affectionate regard of the pupils. It is this same desire for social co-operation that makes us choose for our pupils, both present and past, work, such as social clubs and Scout troops, in which all classes mingle.

May our old boys also contribute a higher sense of honour, even in business and politics. This is already the aim of many of them.

We attach great importance to moral education, for the better safeguarding of personal chastity and a growing respect for womanhood among all our pupils. They will also take from their school a high ideal of family life because

they will have lived among normal and numerous families whose life is healthy, open and ceaselessly inspired by the spirit of self-sacrifice. There too the Scout movement is a powerful aid, especially in the formation of an international spirit among our pupils. One can and should love one's country, respect one's flag, the symbol of a great tradition and of a noble ideal, but at the same time bear a friendly attitude towards the children and men of other countries. To educate children in this spirit of goodwill is one of the essential traits of the new education.

We are going to use the Scout movement even more strongly in the Preparatory School which we are founding for younger children from six to ten years. Here the whole education will be inspired by the methods of the Wolf Cubs, as well as by the results of the work of the great contemporary educationists.

If our French schools, both State and private, have learnt much from the new education about the moral and social moulding of the child, we might well also borrow much from the efforts of the new education in the realm of the spirit. We have reduced the number of facts that the children must be taught, by insisting above all on the essential 'crucial' facts of the history of humanity and of the outer world. We seek above all to give the child those intellectual qualities which will enable him later on to understand the problems set him by the world, and to solve them like a man. We attach the greatest importance to the development of observation, so often neglected in French education, to the spirit of induction and deduction, to habits of order and method, to common sense and to speed and concentration of work. There is still much to be done in this important question of the efficiency of work both of the teacher and of the child. To put it shortly, the school aims at making the child *more intelligent*, which is the natural and too often neglected aim of intellectual education.

The physical and natural sciences, nature expeditions and practical scientific work are naturally of more importance here than in the traditional schools. We do not forget that we are in the depths of the country and we make the most of it. We do not forget either that the Ecole des Roches should be the link between

the new methods and the French tradition of the cultivation of the humanities, and we lay great stress on general culture. History and geography give children the sense of time and space, of the past and of the far distant and also a sense of relative values. The child inquires into how and why a certain geographical position has reacted upon a certain people, and how, from the physical features of a place, are derived the occupations, the laws of property, the various social phenomena and even the literature. The method of Les Roches is to group all general culture around history, geography and social studies, so as to create greater interest, cohesion, logic and unity. Translation, both from Latin and from living tongues, develops a supple and intuitive spirit; so does the teaching of the mother tongue by the Brunot method, and the writing of French, so favourable not only to the culture of the imagination but also to the spirit of order and lucidity, traditional qualities of our race. The mathematical sciences will again be, in their beginnings, sciences of induction and observation. We do not seek to create the philosophic spirit of mathematics except in the higher classes.

Modern languages give a culture which lasts throughout life, while Greek gives the culture of the past. They are learnt to a large extent in the countries themselves, by well-organized visits, which are more useful to the realization of the spirit of peace than is the actual study of the language.

Finally, we attach great importance to æsthetic education, both through the plastic arts—modelling, sculpture, pottery, painting, drawing, book-binding—and through music and singing. We are living in an age of gramophones and wireless, but to understand them one must be a musician; and, moreover, it would be deplorable to be content to listen to a mechanical performance, and not to develop, while still at school, the creative faculties which are at least as important to the man as to the child.

That is all very fine, the pessimists will object, but how about examinations, the famous and difficult 'bachot'? What do you do about that? I answer: The majority of our pupils go in for it and pass it successfully. Each year we

count on about 80 or 90 per cent of successes. This year, in July 1931, we had twenty-eight pupils in our top form, twenty-two of whom sat for the examination, and twenty-one passed. We must conclude that one can carry out one's intellectual education according to the more recent methods and yet pass university examinations.

One can in the same way give a full intellectual education and yet find room for physical education. In France we are unique in this respect. We are nicknamed 'The School of Sports'. Yet we keep physical exercises in their proper place, seeking only to give through them health, vigour, suppleness and enjoyment. We want above all to create healthy bodies, and we must acknowledge a debt of gratitude to Naval-Lieutenant Hébert for his commonsense method. Air, light, warm and cold water, every kind of movement, and a rational diet, these are the elements of a methodical physical culture, regularly controlled. It bars out all flabbiness and all luxury.

The manual training, of which I have already spoken, also tends to produce greater suppleness and skill of body, greater realism and acuteness of mind, and greater humility, simplicity and perseverance of spirit.

People complain, not without reason, of the overworked pupils in secondary schools, but the remedies proposed are useless, because no one has the courage to face the question of education as a whole. It is not enough merely to reduce the programmes and the hours of work. It is a question of setting above all else the modelling of conscience and will, the power of resistance of the body, and the reform of teaching methods in the direction of a real development of the intelligence. The experiments of the new schools are there as sign-posts, if only our heads of education would turn their eyes towards them. After having observed our methods clearly and fairly, may they have the courage to apply them to the whole of French education! What a magnificent task for a Minister of Education who would dare to be a true leader!



Ecole des Roches. An Out-Door Discussion

Some Reading Experiences—II

Bronxville, New York

The earlier part of this article appeared in the November issue. It has been compiled by Mary Schaefer, Louise Stone, Mary C. Case and Mabel Bellows, teachers at Bronxville, with an Introduction by Mary M. Reed

FIRST READING OF BOOKS

A LIKING for books and a desire to read them had grown up in the children whose kindergarten and early first grade experiences were described in a previous article. Moreover, through the reading which these children had been doing, some of them had acquired reading habits and vocabulary which prepared them to read simple books with comparative ease. There continued, of course, the strong challenges to read the bulletins, notices, plans, reports that grew out of a particular classroom situation.

There were always books in the room which the children pored over, enjoying the pictures and often asking to have the stories read to them. After the group had shared many experiences of daily living and occasional excursions, in all of which reading was a necessary part, more books were placed in the room library. Some of the children discovered for themselves that they could read these books; others began to feel their own power only after they had received a great deal of help. The teacher planned to give such help at this time so that the children's joy in their first books should not be lost through discouragement. The child experiences a thrilling satisfaction when he finds that he really has power to read a book. This stage of 'first book reading' requires the almost constant help of the teacher, and is a time when the technique of teaching counts most. The whole class was not ready to read at the same time.

The teacher's standards for judging whether a child was ready for this step were: that he should look for the meaning in printed words, find the meaning of some simple words from the context, recognize word, phrase and sentence units, know when he needs help and recognize familiar words in new settings. As the children enjoyed their books and read more and more easily, their interest continued. Some of the girls and boys had read

twenty to thirty books by the end of the first year; most of them had read eight to twelve. The children chose their books from many in the room, all good in general make-up, but varying in difficulty and in variety of content. Usually a child knew before he had finished one book what he wanted to read next. The teacher supervised his choice just enough to prevent his tackling too difficult a book or reading too many books of one kind. For her guidance, she kept a record of what each child read.

The children often consulted books. In many cases they did not read every story, but only a single favourite, or they read several pages to see if the story were interesting. They looked through books to find stories for special occasions. They used books for help in meeting such class problems as finding how many eggs to put under a setting hen, or for finding the exact sequence of events in a story which they were dramatizing.

The boys and girls were interested in each other's stories and anxious to read them to each other. A time was set aside for a 'Story Hour'. The teacher helped the children to study the stories they wanted to read in the story hour. Their self-imposed standards were that the story be interesting, that it be read without help, and that it be read smoothly. The Story Hour was most often the sharing of any stories which the children had enjoyed in their own reading. Sometimes it was related to other class interests. In a group studying about milk and wanting to make butter, several children read aloud descriptions of how butter was made. When one group entertained another at Christmas, the reading of poems or stories suitable to the day was part of the programme. In the celebration of birthdays, stories were selected of the type the birthday child was known to like—funny stories, stories about dogs, exciting stories.

Reading experiences carried on through the second year lead to the cultivation of interest in



A POST-OFFICE PROJECT. BRONXVILLE, NEW YORK

silent reading. In this way the beginnings are laid for future literary appreciation and discrimination. One may see evidences of this in the kind of books the child selects to read to others.

Reading to others affords some opportunity to widen the child's social experiences, in that it stimulates exchange of ideas. The situation created by this exchange affords the teacher varied opportunities to assist the child in the cultivation of proper reading habits.

READING IN A THIRD GRADE

The Group of Children.

The particular group of children who were in this third grade came from the second grade with the right attitude toward reading. They had been so taught that practically all of them were eager to read. They knew that books would bring enjoyment and information to them. They had already experienced something of the pleasure a child gets from stories he reads and understands. No one in the whole group was satisfied to go on reading unless he could understand the meaning of what he read.

In actual attainment there was a wide range, one of the causes of retardation being unusually long periods of absence on the part of certain children during the first three years of their school life. As measured by standardized oral and silent reading tests, a few had fifth and sixth grade reading ability, and many had fourth grade scores; but about a third of the class had only first or second grade attainments. However, their chronological and mental ages were about the same, and they had reached about the same degree of social maturity.

Activities of the Group.

Since one cannot separate reading from the large units of activity which absorb the interests of the children, a brief *résumé* of the larger activities, in which the whole group participated is given:

Sharing vacation experiences; collecting different kinds of seeds and finding out how they grow and are distributed; making maps (we made one large map to show another group where we found interesting seeds. This led to a study of picture maps and conventional maps. We made a collection of both kinds); studying about wheat and cotton—an outgrowth of the

interest in seeds; giving a Hallowe'en party for the first grade; finding out how the foods we used at the party got to us and how and where they grew; planning and buying a Thanksgiving dinner for a poor family; making Christmas gifts (toys, doll furniture and dressing dolls) for settlement house children—learning how the wood, silk, cotton, linen, rubber, wool and leather we used was raised and manufactured; finding out about other peoples of the world: this unit of work was stimulated by some moving pictures we saw showing children at work and play in many different countries; planning a room magazine; giving plays; making textiles and curtains for room decoration; making Easter gifts for mothers; planning story hours.

How Reading helped us carry forward these activities.

No one of these activities can be successfully carried on without constant use of reading. Third grade children are just at the age where their curiosity about the things they see around them is most keen. They can answer many of their own questions by reading. They can find out how to do many things by reading instructions. In the study of wheat and cotton, in the activities connected with the story of the foods used at the party and in the materials used for Christmas gifts, and in finding out about other peoples of the world, reading was carried on in much the same way as in the study of seeds. Groups read together on certain topics, reporting to the rest, or reading orally the most interesting parts. The organization always came from the children's own questions.

When we made cookies and candy and popcorn for the party, we had to do exact reading of directions and recipes. Another opportunity for this type of reading came in the reading of directions about handling woodwork and clay tools and in cutting patterns for doll dresses. Much of this material was organized, on charts similar to those used in early reading experiences.

When we planned plays we read many selections for dramatization. Sometimes we all worked together, planning lists of properties, stage directions, and synopses of scenes to which we referred constantly as we worked out the play.

In the story hours, there began to be some organization. Children read orally parts of stories—the funniest part, the most exciting part, the parts they liked best—telling enough of the sequence of events in the story to make the portion read understandable to the rest. As they grew older they showed increasing discrimination in the types of things read. They grew more conscious of their audiences and the audiences became more critical. Each week one child was chosen by the rest to be chairman of the story hours.

Types of Reading Experiences.

In such a reading programme, many types of reading experiences are possible. Each day there is reading of stories from literature and from informational material in groups. Each child read silently daily in a book chosen by himself. In so far as possible their silent reading was checked by informal discussion of what they read with the teacher. Many days they all did informational reading in preparation for group discussions. The accuracy of this reading was constantly checked by informal comprehension tests. For those who needed it, there were daily drill periods with the teacher. These drill periods were devoted to (1) practice in learning to attack unfamiliar words, by looking for a known part, breaking the word into parts, recognizing phonetic elements, examining the general aspect of the word, length, tall letters, letters below the line (usually the children were helped individually as they came to the words, which they did not recognize in their own reading); (2) practice in accurate oral and silent reading; (3) additional reading of bulletins, group compositions, the class magazine—with which materials these weaker readers always needed extra help.

The organization on the basis of activities provides for (1) the growth in reading skills; (2) the broadening of reading interests; (3) individual differences in attainment and interests.

Growth in Reading Skills.

The ability to find an answer to a question by reading is best gained by experience in answering one's own questions. The need for organizing what one has read, picking out the

main thoughts, and skimming through non-essentials is apparent in the preparation of reports to be given on various topics. When these topics are those of their own choice, little special training need be given for accurate reading or in teaching the children to draw conclusions and do independent thinking about what they have read. Naturally they learn to use indices and tables of contents through the constant necessity of doing so.

In all except cases of special reading disabilities, habits of correct eye movements are cared for by the rapid reading which becomes common among children who are really interested in what they read. At the end of third grade one expects definite attainments.

The Broadening of Reading Interests.

In general, third grade children grow rapidly away from the stories which deal largely with everyday happenings within their own experiences—so popular in first and second grades—becoming eager for stories of adventure, about strange countries and strange peoples, about animals and nature. They are especially fond of humorous stories and enjoy informational material about history, industry, geography and the phenomena of their environment.

Individual Differences in Attainment and Interests.

In a group where the ability of individuals is so uneven, it is rarely possible to use more than a few books of one kind. It is necessary to provide books of different degrees of difficulty on the same subject so that all may read and make contributions to group discussions.

The children are divided into groups for daily meetings with the teacher in order that each child may get as nearly as possible the special kind of help or encouragement he needs.

By making use of the varied interests of one group, one usually finds some one topic upon which an individual child is eager to read and study. The children are allowed a great deal of freedom in the choice of books, which they read silently, at their own rate. Thus, individual differences are adequately provided for, and even the poorest reader manages finally to read a book which is all his own, which he has chosen for himself and which is suited to his capacity.

Why Children Annoy Grown-ups

FLORENCE WATSON OLESEN

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WHY do children annoy grown-ups? Doubtless the reasons are as many and as varied as the number of grown-ups annoyed. But less specifically speaking it is often because the adults fail to interpret the child's conduct in the light of their own childhood experiences and interests. Secondly, because their understanding of what lies behind his conduct—the intense urges to activity, the avidness for experience, and the 'conduct drives'—is too meagre. Why a child behaves as a child is a sealed book to the average adult. Understanding these conduct *whys* will work wonders in reducing parental annoyance. And lastly, most adults are annoyed because they have not re-organized their sense of values in judging what is annoying.

How do children annoy grown-ups?

'Their everlasting and thoroughly "satiabile curiosities"', clamour many harassed parents. There is a case of not understanding the function of genuine curiosity. When the adult perceives in the child's constant handling, experimenting and questioning a real thirst for knowledge, a desire to milk each experience dry, his irritation vanishes in the fascination of watching and aiding the resultant growth. He will see in the child's endless repetition of a new experience, how truly insatiable is that curiosity.

'What annoys me', says Tommy's mother, 'is his incessant activity. Why can't he ever be still?' As well ask Niagara to take an afternoon off! The child must have four to six times as much physical activity as the adult. This is due to so much less energy being absorbed in mental activity. Hence, it is difficult for him to sit still. The never-ceasing stream of his energy forces him to be active, and, as he learns more from the first-hand experiences gained through doing than in any other way, this is a very significant aspect of his education. When the child has adequate play space, wisely selected playthings, playmates, and understanding supervision, his incessant activity becomes purposeful, and ceases to be a thorn in the flesh. We cannot alter the child's inherent nature;

he must play. It is up to the parent whether this activity shall be constructive and satisfying to parent and child, or destructive and annoying.

'It's not the noise of children happily at play that I mind, but when they play quarrelsomely, it's so wearing', adds another adult. There is quarrelling, and quarrelling. The wrong kind arises from inability to make adequate social adjustment with the group, insufficient play outlets, emotional instability, over-control, or ill-health. The valuable type arises in the process of learning to get along with the group. Every child must travel the long, hard road from egocentric babyhood toward socially minded adulthood. This means he must learn when he can have his way and when he must give in to the group. Naturally, when the friction becomes too great the painfully acquired gears of human adjustment are going to emit some discordant sounds. Such quarrelling is not vicious, and can be cheerfully borne when the adult recognizes it as a growing-pain of character.

Many grown-ups are annoyed by the child's leisurely pace in doing what is required of him. 'One would think there was all the time in the world. He won't hurry', they protest. He won't hurry because he can't. His evolving nerve connections and muscular co-ordinations do not gear him for the tension and pace of our modern life. Instead, his lack of proficiency and clumsiness require him to operate in low gear. By following the line of his interests, and giving him much unhurried practice in whatever process he yearns to master, such for example as some phase of dressing, feeding himself, or putting away his toys, his speed will increase considerably. Lacking both the pressure of responsibility and sense of time, his comprehension of 'hurry up' is vague. He becomes so absorbed in the process that he forgets it is a means to an end, not an end in itself. To illustrate: to many a mother's annoyance, picking up the toys in the evening develops into playing with the toys, oblivious to the onrush of bedtime. Since he can only be conscious of an objective for a brief period, short, simple tasks

done under adult supervision best train him in meeting time objectives.

What constitutes an annoying act?

The standards vary greatly with the individual adult. There is the wise parent who says: 'You can't have both boys and grass; I'll take the boys.' There is the fretting mother who complains: 'Margery is so active. I have to keep her in the house all the afternoon to keep her dress clean!' Or the mother who prodded her toddler into incessant walking because it annoyed her to have her sit down and get mussed. The grown-ups who learn to gauge their standards of judgment by the yardstick of the child's developmental needs, will cast aside so petty a sense of values. They will discover that many of the child's acts which distress them are not intrinsically annoying, but merely inconvenient for the adult, and they will base their reactions accordingly. Christine's mother would not make this distinction. She never found the work of entertaining her own friends

too much, but let Christine beg to have her playmates over, and the reply was: 'No; why will you ask when you know how annoying it is to have children here? It is such a bother to have you want them.' Casting the onus of annoying conduct on the child's perfectly legitimate desires is such an easy way to camouflage the selfish criteria of our personal convenience.

It would seem, then, that our best prophylactic against having our children's conduct annoy us unduly lies in our objectively analysing the situation, asking ourselves:

'Why is he behaving in such a manner? Is there a more constructive way he can gain this satisfaction he craves? What is my best policy in such a case?'

By the time we have arrived at fair, dispassionate answers, based on the child's rights as a developing personality, and unbiased by our personal inclinations, much of our annoyance will have evaporated.

● *Make a note now that the*

6TH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

of the

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

will be held in

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International Notes

New Education Fellowship News.

Canada—Dr. William Boyd says of his recent tour in Canada, 'It began at Victoria, B.C., and ended at Winnipeg, the towns visited being Victoria, Vancouver, Calgary, Edmonton, Saskatoon, Regina, Winnipeg. In the course of twelve days I addressed N.E.F. groups, home and school association meetings, teachers' associations, schools, training colleges, universities, and gave a sermon on Parent Education to a congregation of fifteen hundred (in Winnipeg). Everywhere the gospel of the new education met a response more ready and less critical than at home. It was obvious that though the ideas were new to many of those who came to the meetings there was a general willingness to accept them and to seek for ways and means of putting them into practice.'

Ireland—The Northern Ireland Branch of the New Education Fellowship was formed in February, 1930. It has now a membership of sixty.

The Committee has arranged an interesting programme of monthly meetings for the session 1931-1932. The first of these was held on 5th October and took the form of a discussion on the Dalton Plan. Miss M. F. Abraham, of the Belfast Royal Academy, told of her visit to Miss Parkhurst's school in New York and Miss A. Purvis, Headmistress of Richmond Lodge School, described an experiment which she had carried out. An interesting discussion followed.

The November meeting is to be addressed by Dr. Olive Anderson, who is taking as her subject 'Medical Problems in Child Education.'

Scotland—The Scottish Section has kindly allowed us to make the following notes from their Annual Report, October, 1931.

From 17th to 27th November we had a lecturing tour of an unusual type from Miss Muriel Payne, the author of *Oliver Untwisted*. This was also the title of most of her lectures, and so great was the interest created by them that several of the centres sent her special contributions to assist her in her present work for children at the Tavistock Square Clinic.

The spring session was largely devoted to activities connected with the British Commonwealth Conference and the Scottish School Film. Up to date the four Training College Schools have been taken and various others are to be done shortly.

The Annual General Meeting, 1931, was held on the 10th October at the Outlook Tower, Edinburgh, and was a most successful gathering, partly owing to the presence of Dr. Boyd, who, though only just back in this country, gave a delightful account of his experiences in U.S.A. and Canada, where he has been for over a year, a most popular and hard-worked speaker on New Education. Dr. Alex. Morgan was in the chair. Miss Margaret Drummond was unanimously elected President for this year.



Other Points of Interest.

America.

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, has announced a plan for a new undergraduate college for the training of elementary, secondary and nursery school teachers. Professor Thomas Alexander, who will direct the new college, has drawn up a booklet dealing with his aims, from which the following extracts have been taken :—

'The duration of the period of study in the college will vary approximately from three to five years according to the ability of the student, and will include at least one year spent in study and travel abroad. Students will be required to spend some time in actual work in industry and business so that when they become teachers they will have an adequate conception of the work of the world into which most pupils who graduate from our American schools must enter. One year of satisfactory teaching service in co-operating private and public school systems will be required before a degree is granted. Assurance of such co-operation has been obtained from a number of school systems.

'Cost of attendance at the college probably will not exceed \$1,000 a year. It is hoped that a number of scholarships may become available for unusually promising young men and women who wish to prepare for the teaching profession and who cannot meet tuition costs. . . .

'Because problems of the future teacher will centre about the child, the central core of the curriculum will deal with child nature and development and the students in training will have intimate contact, under careful guidance, with the children in laboratory schools of Teachers College and other institutions.

'Because the future teacher must in a real sense be a social worker the curricula of the college will provide courses in social economy, sociology, economics, politics, and problems of civic and industrial life, and will look forward to providing for each student active participation in some form of social work. . . . There will be close, intimate association between the student body and an outstanding faculty to bring about the contact of mind with mind, that contact of the spirit of the teacher with the ripening enthusiasm of the pupil, which is the most important of all factors in education.'



England.

Mrs. Checksfield has written the following short report of a School Journey in Denmark :—

'Twenty girls and twenty boys, drawn mainly from the Addey and Stanhope School, New Cross, have recently been touring in Denmark as guests of the various Danish schools. The trip was initiated by Herr Bröndum of Esjberg, who is very interested in school journeys abroad as a means of promoting international understanding. The party left England on 22nd August, arriving back on 12th September,

and in this time we visited nine different towns, beginning with the port of Esjberg and ending with four days in Copenhagen. As the Danish schools begin their autumn term at the beginning of August, we were able to see many schools actually working, and to gather impressions of Danish education. We stayed usually two or three days in each town. At each place we were met by the Headmaster with a large number of his boys and girls—all the Danish schools are co-educational—and the English children were billeted in the houses of individual Danish pupils. As the normal day session of a Danish school is from 8 a.m. to 2 p.m., the Danes were free to join us in afternoon excursions as well as at the evening entertainments provided for us. The Headmasters allowed us to visit the schools in the mornings, and see the ordinary work and play going on; also, the English visitors gave talks to the Danish children (most of whom speak English very well) on topics connected with English school life.

The children learnt a good deal of the history of Slesvig when they were at Tönder, Sonderborg and Aabenraa—three towns in the part of Slesvig which was returned to Denmark as a result of the 1918 plebiscite, and where the population is still half German. They were also much impressed by the quaint cathedral town of Ribe, where storks still nest in the cottage roofs, by the beauty of Sonderborg's sea-coast, and by the associations of Odense, the birthplace of Hans Andersen.

Our time in Copenhagen seemed all too short. Expeditions were arranged for us there by the Anglo-Danish Society, and we were received by the Mayor of Copenhagen who allowed us to look over the magnificent town hall. When we left for our long journey home, we all took with us the pleasantest memories of Danish hospitality, and the hope that some day we may be able to meet our numerous hosts again.

A Christmas School of Dramatic Production organized by Citizen House, Bath, will be held at the Everyman Theatre, Hampstead, from 2nd to 10th January. This school will follow the lines of those organized before on a purely practical basis. Members will be taught exactly how to produce plays by a professional staff.

Every detail of rehearsal work, scene-setting, costume-making and design will be studied. Plays and model programmes suitable for production in schools and colleges will be rehearsed and public performances will be given at the close of the Course. Interesting discussions and debates follow these meetings and every member is given the utmost personal tuition.

A series of fortnightly week-end Schools held on Saturday evenings and Sundays have recently been started at the Everyman Theatre. In many cases, the plays which members wish to produce in their own areas are put into actual rehearsal and every detail is worked out.

For those who are unable to attend the fortnightly week-end courses in London, similar week-end and half-term courses are held in the Little Theatre, Bath.

Germany.

We learn that the second number of the *International Education Review*, published by J. P. Bachew, Cologne, price four marks a copy, which we referred to in May, is to appear in January next. This Review, which is edited by Prof. Friedrich Schneider, of Cologne, in co-operation with Dr. Paul Monroe of the International Institute of Teachers College, is the first attempt to produce an international magazine in three languages (English, French and German), appealing to educationalists of all shades of opinion. It deserves a wide circulation both on account of its object and of its contents. As Prof. Schneider says in his introduction, Internationalism and Universality go well together. The first number includes a foreword from Georg Kerschensteiner, who sees in an international exchange of educational views and experience the only way to put an end to foolish national vanity and the consequent stagnation of education. English educators would do well to note! The editor contributes an article on the increase of international co-operation in education, describing the activities of thirty-two international educational organizations, of which the N.E.F. is one. Prof. Schneider, pointing to the fact that many of these organizations inevitably duplicate each other's work, makes two suggestions: (1) that by mutual agreement no new international organization of this kind should be founded; and (2) that some of those already in existence be brought together under one roof in order to simplify their work and prevent overlapping. A second article is promised on the same theme. In the same number Prof. Flitner, of Hamburg, suggests that a common conception underlies the new education movement, which has sprung up spontaneously in many different lands. This is due to the fact that there has grown up in Europe a commonly accepted ideal of humanity, which, however, includes a revivifying of national traditions and cannot in consequence be realized without the development of individual national differences. A new task, therefore, awaits the internationalist, who must seek to bring about an international understanding of representative national points of view. The need for this appreciation of national differences has prompted the N.E.F. to devote one section of its next Conference at Nice to a description of recent progress within national systems of education.



NURSERY SCHOOL ASSOCIATION.

Many who were not able to attend the July Conference of the N.E.F. in London will be interested to consider the following summary of the duties of the Medical Officer of a Nursery School as presented in her address by Dr. Gertrude H. Hickling, Honorary Medical Officer to the Bensham Grove Nursery School, Gateshead, and Assistant Child Welfare Medical Officer for Newcastle-on-Tyne:—

'1. To supervise the health of the children, individually and collectively:

- (a) By complete examination of each entrant on admission, and at regular intervals throughout its nursery school life. At each inspection the child is undressed, weighed and measured, defects are noted, remedies suggested. The services of the family doctor or hospital specialist are called on when indicated.
- (b) By a rapid survey of the children as a whole at each visit of the M.O. to the school, thus forming an impression of the general health of the little community and incidentally picking out for further investigation any member whose appearance is unsatisfactory.
2. Periodically to inspect the entire premises, as to cleanliness, ventilation, lighting, heating and general sanitation.
3. To advise as to the children's diet, to see that its vitamin content is satisfactory, that exercise for the teeth is provided, and the drinking of water encouraged. The safeguarding of the milk supply and of the drinking water are the M.O.'s special concern.
4. Since every item on the time-table has its medical as well as its social and educational aspect, it is the business of the M.O. to become familiar with the whole of the daily routine. This necessitates visits at times other than the regular inspection periods.
5. To teach the laws of health, directly and indirectly, to the children, the staff and the parents.
6. To prevent the outbreak or spread of infectious disease of every type, by eliminating possible sources of danger and by enforcing every hygienic precaution.
7. The compiling of records for future use, as well as for statistical purposes, is of importance. The medical card should afford a complete record of the child's medical history up to "school age." It should serve to link up the Infant Welfare with the School Medical Service.
8. To make original investigation as to the incidence, causes and methods of treatment and their result, of some of the ailments and abnormalities commonly met with in the age period under consideration, such as "threadworms", "nettlerash" (urticaria), flat-foot.

In short, to co-operate in every way with the Superintendent in her efforts to promote and maintain the health and well-being of her charges, and raise up entrants to the elementary school, strong and well, disciplined in mind and body, furnished with habits of health, orderliness, industry and self-control.

In October, the Executive of the Nursery School Association forwarded the following letter to every Education Committee in England and Wales :—

'To the Chairman of the Education Committee.

DEAR SIR,

As the responsible Officers of the Nursery School Association of Great Britain we wish to submit the following points for your consideration :—

1. We would call attention to the circular issued to all Local Education Authorities in December, 1929 (1054 Ministry of Health, and 1405 Board of Education), and express our belief that the needs set forth in that circular will now be greater than ever in view of the present financial position.

2. The Nursery School has an important part to play in the present economic crisis. Inevitably reduced spending power in many homes will entail poorer food and clothing, with greater risks of sickness and malnutrition. Moreover, the care of the young child is a serious handicap to the mother who has to earn or supplement the family income. Unless there is adequate provision for the daily care of such children there will be many cases where the only alternative is the expensive one of institutional provision for the whole family.

3. Experience of Nursery Schools has proved abundantly that in them rickets and skin disease rapidly disappear and the incidence of infectious disease is low. The child's potentialities, physical and mental, are given their proper chance of development under skilled guidance.

4. Therefore we urge that in spite of the present financial crisis there should be no abandonment of plans for establishing new open-air Nursery Schools, and that the existing provision should be well maintained as one of the best means of combating the stress of adverse conditions to be anticipated in the immediate future.

5. In three years' time children who are now two years old will reach the school age of five. Are they to enter the elementary school sickly and backward, a continual source of expense to the Local Education Authority and the health services, or robust and well developed, ready to receive the full value of their years at school? It depends on the nurture and training they will experience between now and 1935.

Yours truly,

S. EVELEGH, *President*

E. RYLE, *Acting Chairman*

G. OWEN, *Hon. Secretary.*

The Christmas Conference of the Nursery School Association will be held as usual in connection with the Annual Conference of Educational Associations at University College. The Annual and Open Meetings will be held on the morning of 9th January, 1932, when Miss Margaret Drummond, M.A., F.E.I.S., Vice-Chairman of the Association, will preside.

Book Reviews

Education. By T. Raymont, M.A. (Longmans, Green & Co. 7s. 6d.)

Mr. Raymont's earlier book, *The Principles of Education*, which appeared nearly thirty years ago, was one of the best books of its time, presenting a sane and well-balanced view of the whole field of education. The present book is by no means a mere re-adaptation of the earlier work. It possesses the same cleverness in presentation, the same easy style, but it is completely up-to-date and assesses with due discrimination the latest views.

It does not profess to be an original treatment of the subject, nor does it view education from any new angle. Rather does it seek to gather up into clear focus the best that has been said and done during the present generation. Some of the chapters are extremely well written. For example, in the discussion on theory, the author delimits with admirable clearness the respective fields and inter-relations of Philosophy and Psychology. He has much to say that is helpful about school curricula, and he appraises with tact and judgment the contributions of the various agencies and institutions that bear directly or indirectly on the education of the future citizen.

The book professes to deal mainly with British tendencies in education. It is matter for regret that Mr. Raymont makes so little use of the characteristic features of Scottish education. In dealing with the history of teacher training for example, he omits to discuss the work of David Stow. In discussing the various problems Mr. Raymont draws on his wide practical experience. You feel that he brings not only real philosophic insight, but also ripe professional skill to the consideration of every question he raises. The book is very readable and should be as interesting to the intelligent layman as to the professional teacher. It is extremely well documented. A useful bibliography attached to each chapter gives the reader references to the best of recent educational literature bearing on the theme discussed in the chapter concerned.

Neil S. Snodgrass

History of Secondary Education. I. L. Kandel. (Harrap. 10s. 6d.)

Here is a book for which English educators should be grateful. It comes from America and it has not been so sympathetically reviewed as it deserves. The author received a classical education in England and was trained for teaching by Sir Michael Sadler. He is now a professor at Teachers College, Columbia University, and has devoted many years to the study of the educational systems of other countries. This is the kind of source from which we can expect a really illuminating story which will enable us to appreciate both the merits and defects of our system of secondary schools. The book is more substantial because of its historical basis than Dr. Flexner's work on Universities, but it serves a similar purpose for a wider and perhaps more important field. The earlier chap-

ters are general and deal with the Greek and Roman systems of education, the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, and the Early Scientific Movement. The rise and development of the national systems in France, Germany, England, and the United States are next treated, and there is a separate chapter dealing with the education of girls in these four countries. In a final thoughtful chapter Dr. Kandel deals very faithfully with the problems which are now presenting themselves in all countries. The growth of democratic institutions has thrown into contrast the two ideas of secondary education for all and selective education for an élite. America has shown how the former may produce mass instruction in many subjects of doubtful value, with neglect of many of the highest talents of the few. Our own system is notorious for its waste of ability which cannot find its opportunity. The way of reconciliation between the two ideas has not yet been found. It is not necessarily the same for all countries. But the national problems involved have enough in common to make them worth careful comparison.

This is the principal impression which Dr. Kandel's book has made on one reader. But it has also removed a great deal of his ignorance on such subjects as the recent conflicts in French secondary education which may not be entirely insignificant for those who are studying the present difficult economic situation. The incomplete attempt of German nationalism to evolve a system of schools adapted to its needs is also of special interest, especially in such manifestations as the youth movement and the new emphasis on physical education.

Such a book should surely find a place in the staff common room of every secondary school.

W. H. Perkins

The Gateway of Learning. By Margaret Drummond, M.A. (University of London Press. 6s.)

To open a book by Miss Margaret Drummond is to expect pleasant and interesting reading, and her latest is no exception, in spite of the fact that the theme is our old friend the 'Three R's.'

Miss Drummond does not bring forward any new educational theory, but her plea is for a new attitude towards teaching. Instead of applying some pet method or working for results, the teacher should rather endeavour to gain a scientific point of view of her profession; should aim to know the child as he actually is, to study the processes involved in learning and then use the method that seems the most suitable.

The value of a scientific attitude is discussed in the introduction, and its practical application in the second chapter, headed 'Mental Tests.' An account is given of the development of 'Mental Tests' and some examples of how they are made. One feels that the object was to expel any prejudices that might still linger in the mind of the reader, as the advantages are clearly explained, but not the drawbacks or difficulties such as eliminating 'opportunity' from 'intelligence'

when testing a pre-school child. For example, the child who has had plenty of opportunity in his home for playing with paper and pencil, will probably succeed better in the Porteus Maze test than an equally intelligent child who has not had the same advantages.

In the chapters on 'Writing', 'Spelling', 'Number', etc., each subject is analysed into the different steps that a child must take before becoming proficient, and many practical examples are given. In the chapter on 'Reading' it is explained how the child is first confronted with symbols that have to be recognized, associated with sounds and later with meaning. Some very interesting records, taken from *The Fundamental Reading Habit*, are given to illustrate the movement of the eye while reading a line of print. A mature eye will only make three to five pauses across the page, while a child who is just learning to read will make as many as thirty to forty, wandering back and forth. The importance of forming correct habits of eye movement is discussed and a reason for word blindness suggested.

An interesting chapter is devoted to children's drawings, which, being more symbolic than artistic, can be studied by the teacher as showing the interests and the mental growth of the young artist.

The book is well illustrated and full of records of children's actual work. 'In the infants' department it is the attitude that matters', and any teacher reading *Gateway of Learning* must gain a broader and more sympathetic outlook.

Gwen Watkins

Interest and Ability in Reading. By A. I. Gates.
(Macmillan. 6s. 6d.)

As the author suggests, this is not a complete manual or survey or text-book, but at the same time it is the result of investigation carried out by highly competent research students and compiled by one who is a recognized authority on the subject.

To the English eye such a phrase as 'I'll bet', or the American use of the old form 'gotten', or the words 'poeticalness', 'moralness', are unusual, but as it is a text-book for the adult these need not interfere with its usefulness.

The sentence method enthusiast will find in Chapter VII, 'Methods of Developing Fundamental Skills', much food for thought, and the teacher who is still clinging to the usual phonetic methods will have an opportunity of readjusting her values.

Much of the book is highly technical, but such chapters as 'The Influence of the Vocabulary Burden', 'The Influence of the Type of Material', 'Principles and Illustrations of Method', are within the reach of the youngest teacher. Whilst in entire agreement with the need for work books and study books, we doubt whether the kind suggested be practicable. There is an economic objection to the use of text-books into which the child writes his answers, and which therefore cannot be used a second time. Is it not possible to frame questions that could be answered in a notebook or orally? The questions and exercises at the end of each chapter could be made the basis of serious study by teachers in

Training Colleges or those preparing for professional examinations.

At a time when there is so much discussion in this country of the accepted methods of instruction in reading, this volume is a most stimulating and helpful one and should find a place in every teacher's library.

F. E. Webb

The Young Child. *A Series of Five Lectures on Child Management.* (Melbourne University Press. 2s.)

This book is recommended to all who have the responsibility of training young children. It deals with the many problems that must constantly confront the parent or guardian, and in a simple and stimulating way explains how these troubles may have arisen, and how, by using different methods, they may be prevented.

The lectures were delivered under the auspices of the Victorian Council of Mental Hygiene in the University of Melbourne. They were given by those who have kept abreast with current research, and who also have, evidently, first-hand knowledge of their subjects. The lectures are free from technical terms and give clear and direct information, at the same time they are suggestive and thought provoking.

The chapters are written by different authors, but are all inspired by the same hope of guiding parents in the wise bringing up of their children and so preventing the beginning of later mental ill-health, which is so often due to ignorant or unsympathetic handling of childish misbehaviour. A point that is not always understood is that the trouble may be 'symptomatic', that is only an external indication of some deeper mental disturbance that must be discovered and removed, when the 'symptom' will clear away of itself. This is discussed in the first chapter on 'Why Children are Naughty.' The author also shows how the adult may have created the difficulty himself and explains how by unwise handling he could build up far more serious troubles than those he was trying to cure. So much unhappiness would be avoided if we realized that many little faults would quickly die if no notice were taken and good points blossom through a little attention. Some helpful advice is given on special problems, such as the 'gifted child', 'left handedness', 'enuresis', lying.

In the second chapter on 'The Mischief of Fear', the writer very ably shows how fears may be acquired by children, quoting the researches carried out by Watson; then develops the point that fear may be the underlying cause of numerous forms of disorder, because 'Fear is a response of the complete organism, in which so-called bodily and mental changes are so closely interwoven as to render their separation plainly impossible.' These disorders are classed under three headings: Physiological, Mental and Conduct Disorders; and valuable advice is given as to prevention and cure.

The last three chapters are equally able and discuss problems that come under the headings of 'Obedience', 'Temper' and 'The Growth of Personality.'

The book is a practical introduction to the study of child guidance.

Gwen A. Watkins



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EDUCATION IN A CHANGING EMPIRE

REPORT OF
THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH EDUCATION
CONFERENCE, JULY, 1931..

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Methods of Choosing a Career. By F. M. Earle, M.Ed., B.Sc. With a Preface by Charles S. Myers, C.B.E., F.R.S. (Harrap. 12s. 6d.)

The age of exploration has not ended. Man, nearing the completion of his survey of the earth's surface, turns his vision elsewhere and chooses as his territory that vast, elusive field presented by his Brother Man. It is pioneer work, and in the van of these explorers marches the National Institute of Industrial Psychology.

Mr. Earle in his recently published book, *Methods of Choosing a Career*, describes an experiment in 'Vocational Guidance' carried out amongst 600 elementary school children in London. These children were examined, advised as to the choice of a career, and their progress after leaving school was noted. The results were compared with the progress of a control group of 600 other children who had not been tested or advised as to the choice of a career. The conclusion is decidedly in favour of those children who had been tested and advised by the members of the institute.

Mr. Earle's book vividly describes the difficulties, the exasperations and the fascination of this experiment. To the layman it seems comparatively easy to classify a 14-year-old child in terms of employment, to 'fit the round peg into the round hole.' Mr. Earle shows us the unexpected pitfalls that beset the path of the vocational advisor, and above all, emphasizes the complexity of that microcosm, the human boy or girl. Science may analyse intellectual ability, manual dexterity, temperament and general physique; yet, when all is said and done, the elusive whole, the all-important personality, escapes and defies exact definition. 'One has moods', said a bright youngster in reply to the query whether he liked his work, and the answer summarizes the difficulty of confining a dynamic personality within the limits of static scientific definition.

Some of Mr. Earle's book is concerned with correlations and tables of statistics of importance chiefly to the expert, but there remains much that should interest any person who realizes the necessity for some suitable scheme of vocational guidance.

E. M. R. Ditmas

Pioneering for Peace. By Hebe Spaul. (Sheldon Press. 3s. 6d.)

'The world could not exist, if there were never any wars', wrote a London school girl recently. 'Everything would be dull, and there would be no excitement for heroes.' Miss Spaul's book is a complete refutation of this idea, now present in the minds of many boys and girls. The early chapters describe the adventures of peace-pioneers like Grotius and Monsignor Benavente, and of League of Nations workers like Nansen and Dr. Benes. Some of the stories, like that of young Robert Cecil's fall into a well, are new and vividly told. The weak point of this part of the book is the account of President Wilson's effort to impose the League idea upon the victors at Versailles, for Miss Spaul relates very tamely a

struggle which has elsewhere been likened to 'a fight with the beasts at Ephesus.'

The later chapters, however, contain the best account of League work yet written for boys and girls. Some of the episodes are widely known, for instance the Greek-Bulgarian quarrel of 1925, and the flight of the Greek refugees from Asia Minor; but Miss Spaul tells these stories so vividly, and with such a wealth of new material, that they bear little relation to the usual hackneyed presentment of the facts. Several chapters deal with almost unknown incidents, such as Captain West's anti-slavery expedition to the Kachin tribes, Dr. Pardo's death in the fight against a Polish outbreak of typhus, and Mr. Child's adventures, land-hunting in South America. The final chapter on burden bearers gives an account of forced labour which will be new, even to adults.

Miss Spaul has managed to secure first-hand information from officers of the Secretariat and International Labour Office, and has visited many out-of-the-way places connected with her stories, with the result that a living picture of League work and workers has been created, thrilling enough to satisfy the most adventurous boy or girl. The book ought to be in every school and public library, while all teachers wishing to interest their pupils in the League should make use of it. Many of the stories provide excellent material for classroom plays.

Winifred Jay

The January Issue

will be a special number on
Science in the modern
curriculum.

Contributors include:

JULIAN HUXLEY
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